The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 30, 1894.

The Week.

On Tuesday began a new era in the industrial history of the United States, when the first step for more than a generation was taken in the direction of the emancipation of commerce from the shackles of mediæval exclusiveness and the fallacies of the mercantile system. For many reasons this step has been far more difficult to take than any subsequent one will be. Arrayed against its policy there have been the solid ranks of the Republican party, while the protectionist element among the Democrats has, with only too much success, resisted reform and limited the reduction of duties. Nevertheless, a measure of reform has been adopted, and the attitude of the country has been thereby changed. Henceforth we face, not toward increasing corruption in political campaigns and in the halls of Congress, but towards greater purity. We are turning away from an atmosphere foul with open lobbying and secret bribery to one in which the purchase of favorable legislation will cease to be a principal element, not only because it will not be practicable, but also because it will no longer be thought desirable. After the first plunge, the new medium of freer trade will be found by great numbers of people to be not only less terrible than they supposed, but even positively beneficial; and this will be peculiarly the case with many of the manufacturers.

The decision of the Treasury Department to allow withdrawal from bond without payment of duty, in the case of all goods put on the free list, is certainly good sense and presumably good law. It is, moreover, but a small number of articles that will be affected by the decision — pig tin and wool being the chief. The statement is given out that if anybody feels "aggrieved" at the secretary's interpretation of the law, he can test the matter in the courts. But it is hard to imagine who could feel aggrieved. The importers will not consider it a hardship to be let off paying thousands of dollars in duties, nor will the manufacturers rebel at getting their raw material cheaper, or the consumers at obtaining the finished product at a lower figure. The tin-miners have too many suits for fraud to defend just now to care about resisting the free entry of tin to compete with their mythical product. We should think it possible that the Political Shepherds would have grievous sensations at seeing wool come in duty free, but it is doubtful if they will stop over so small a matter as this Treasury decision. They have the far grander work on their hands of fulfilling their old threat to make the manufacturing towns of New England howling wastes.

That wool-laden bark, cruising off Boston harbor until the new tariff came into effect, ought to be significant of much to our protectionist brethren. The dreadful avalanche of foreign free wool is already upon us, and yet the price of domestic wool is advancing and the woollen mills are preparing for a great rush of business. What has McKinley to say to this? Does he mean, as he says, promptly to restore protection to wool and woollen manufactures, and stop all this hideous prosperity? If something is not speedily done, we shall actually be exporting shiploads of carpets, and how could Messrs. Lawrence and Delano survive that? Ah, but the Bradford manufacturers are smiling as they think how they will soon be swamping us with their goods. But the *Wool and Cotton Reporter* declares that there is nothing in this, and that American manufacturers have not been asleep all this time, but have been preparing to make goods as cheap and desirable as can be had anywhere. All they have lacked before is the wool to do it with, and now that they have got that they are ready to outsmile any Yorkshireman of them all.

The strike in the cotton mills at New Bedford and Fall River has been very gingerly handled by the high-protection press. Here, apparently, was a splendid chance to show how the new tariff was already operating, and to ask the workingmen how they like it. But, to the surprise, doubtless, of their long-suffering readers, there has been an almost dead silence about this "object-lesson." This is doubtless because they clearly remember what the cotton schedule of the new tariff is, and how it came to be adopted. Reference to the *Congressional Record* of June 12 will show what it is that is now muzzling them. On June 11 Senator Jones brought in a completely recast cotton schedule. One amendment after another was offered and was put through without debate or opposition, until at last Senator Dolph, who was not in the secret, jumped up in amazement to know what it all meant. This was the biggest surprise of the session, he affirmed. "Here is one of the most important schedules in the bill, which covers ten pages of closely printed matter, and it has been substantially disposed of in thirty minutes." Where was the vigilant and aggressive Aldrich? Why was Senator Hoar so suddenly, if refreshingly, silent?

Thus called upon, Senator Aldrich had to take the floor, and proceeded to chain up all the protectionist dogs in this fashion: "This schedule," he said, "which *was prepared by a number of manufacturers of Fall River* so far as the price of cloth is concerned, is perhaps the *most scientific schedule* that has ever been prepared upon the subject." He went on to say that "the committee deserves the thanks of the cotton-manufacturers of the country." Of course he had to add that he did not think the duties as high as they should be, but he made no opposition to the schedule, to which he had given such a handsome certificate of character. Senator Hoar explained that "we all agreed, I and the Senator from Rhode Island, that the schedule, as proposed, should pass without opposition." Of course, as to the "general wickedness of the bill," the Massachusetts Senator remained of the same opinion, but the Jones amendment to the cotton schedule he agreed with the manufacturers in finding "perfectly satisfactory."

It did not need a despatch from Madrid to inform us that the duty on sugar in the new tariff would make an end of the Cuban reciprocity agreement. Free sugar was the *quid* which we gave for the Cuban *quo*, and the withdrawal of the former necessitates that of the latter. The language of the bill is that "nothing herein contained shall be held to abrogate or in any way affect such reciprocal commercial arrangements as have been heretofore made and now exist between the United States and foreign countries, except where such arrangements are inconsistent with the provisions of this act." This is very much like the protestations of the Quaker that he was a man of peace, but that if there was a burglar in the corner where he was going to shoot, somebody might get hurt. Neither the Cubans nor the Brazilians would ever have made their agreements but for the promise of free sugar; and however suavely we may now say that we should like the thing to go on, so far as their concessions to us are concerned, just as before, it is not likely that they will be amiable or green enough to see it in that light. The main consideration in all the reciprocity treaties is effectively destroyed by "the provisions of this act," so that its careful denial of intent to abrogate them is only a piece of humor. On the other hand, the Hawaiian treaty, which was a real and not a sham treaty, is ex-

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pressly continued in force until abrogated in the regular way.

The California Republicans this year adopted one of the longest platforms on record, and the telegraphed abstract mentioned only a few of its planks. One resolution, not given in the despatches, begins by "heartily endorsing the proposition that the farmer of the nation, by whose labors the agricultural products of the country are brought to market, should receive a just measure of protection for himself, his labor and his products." It points out that the price of these products is regulated by the amount paid for them in the world's market centres, less the cost of transportation from the place of production, and that, "owing to the great development of staple agricultural products in many of the cheapest labor countries of the world, the prices realized by our farmers have of late been unremunerative." Then comes the practical proposition

> "It is our duty to endeavor to change this state of affairs. Hence we approve of the plan that the Government of the United States should reduce the cost of transporting these staple agricultural products from American seaports to foreign seaports, to the end that the prices of these products should be advanced; and for that purpose, inasmuch as an export can be protected in no other manner, we pronounce ourselves in favor of the use of a limited portion of the receipts of the United States customs for such purposes, and pledge our most earnest efforts to have this measure engrafted upon the laws of the land, to the end that the American protective system shall benefit all classes of the people, aid the farmer against the oppressive competition of the cheap-labor countries of the world, and by so doing assist in maintaining that steady demand for labor in manufacturing centres so essential to the labor of our country."

Here we have the latest development of protection. The Government must overcome the natural laws of trade in the interest of one class—those farmers who raise certain crops; just as it has overcome the same laws in the interest of another class—those manufacturers who make certain kinds of goods. In order that the men who raise wheat, cotton, and corn may get more money for their crops, all of the people are to be taxed for their benefit, and the prices of these staples are to be marked up for all in this country who consume them. The rest of us are to be made by law to pay more than we should otherwise do to the raisers of wheat, cotton, and corn, and all hands will then be prosperous.

The first Republican "keynote" for the future was struck by ex-Speaker Reed at Old Orchard, Maine, on Saturday. Democratic incompetency and depravity are set forth with Mr. Reed's familiar verbosity; but when the portions of his speech devoted to this subject are eliminated, very little remains. About twenty lines contain all that he has to say of the future tariff policy of his party, and these amount simply to a declaration that there is nothing for the good and wise Republicans to do except to stand on guard and prevent the depraved and incompetent Democrats from doing any more mischief. He admits, as the *Tribune* does, that there can be no more tariff legislation till President Cleveland's term expires; but he is not prepared to say that more high tariff will be in order then. He merely says that time is needed in which to permit the country to examine the workings of the new law, "to see precisely what its defects are, and then accomplish whatever remedy is needful to bring the country back to the state of prosperity which it was in when this unfortunate black cloud of Democratic control passed over it." He wishes it to be distinctly understood that the bill is not a finality, and he is braced, like all other good Republicans, to resist the coming of a wave of permanent prosperity.

The Constitutional Convention is gradually fastening one bad provision after another upon the fundamental law which the members are trying to make. Each one of these insures a certain number of negative votes against the whole instrument, and it is apparently only a question of time when their work will be completely waterlogged. The section about prison labor has been cunningly devised so as to prevent the State from selling (except to itself) any articles made in the prisons, while seeming only to prevent contract labor. By injecting the word "product" among the prohibited things, the prison section not only prevents the hiring out of the convicts, but prohibits also the selling of anything they make except to State institutions. They may make clothing for the inmates of the various public asylums, but if they make anything not needed by the State itself it must remain in the prisons till it decays. It is needless to say that this is not a fit subject for a State constitution to attempt to regulate. The General Assembly is always competent to deal with the subject, and ought always to be privileged to do so, more especially since it is compelled to make appropriations for the support of the prisons. The questions of prison labor and prison support ought always to go together. This is just what the labor demagogues want to avoid. They want to have the whole question disposed of for an indefinite period by a body which is under no necessity of providing for the expense of the prisons, and thus take a snap judgment on the people. Mr. Choate vainly endeavored to prevent this outrage—this attempt of a comparatively small number of persons to increase the taxes of all the people, and chiefly of the farmers and other landowners. We venture the prediction that this clause, if finally adopted, will lose more votes for the whole instrument than it will gain.

There could scarcely be a stronger example of the misuse of a constitution than is found in the amendment proposed by the judiciary committee at Albany on the 21st in regard to the corrupt use of money in elections. The amendment simply amounts to a direction to the Legislature to pass general laws forbidding the improper use of money in elections, and also prohibiting corporations from making any contributions to election expenses. We have on the statute books now a great mass of prohibitory legislation of this sort, nearly all of which is impotent because no provision is made for its enforcement. The Legislature has ample authority to make such laws, and needs no additional direction from the Constitution in that respect. What is needed is not more specific and stringent prohibitory laws, but provisions which will furnish the agency for the detection of violations of the laws and the machinery for enforcing the laws. The Legislature has refused repeatedly to give us anything of the kind. It has refused to supplement the prohibitory laws with provisions requiring the sworn publication, after election, by campaign committees and agents, of every dollar received or expended. That is the only way in which the contributions of corporations and individuals could be forced into the light and the use made of them set forth for public contemplation. It is futile to prohibit contributions by corporations, unless we at the same time make it impossible for such contributions to be made without detection. Prohibitory clauses in the Constitution would be of no more use than prohibitory laws on the statute-book; and they would be, furthermore, completely out of place there. The corrupt use of money in elections can be prevented when public sentiment becomes strong enough, first, to compel the passage of laws making such use impossible without exposure, and, second, to compel the rigid enforcement of those laws.

The address of Judge Cooley, as president of the American Bar Association, is full of interest to the laity as well as to the legal profession. He reviews the principal social events of the year, the movement of armies of vagrants upon Washington and the disturbances at Chicago, in such a way as to bring out the significance of the episodes with admirable clearness. Whoever desires to understand what was involved in these movements cannot do better than to read this address, which has been printed in full in the September issue of the *Forum*. As to the Chicago strike, Judge Cooley dismisses Gov. Altgeld's theory of constitutional law briefly. According to that theory, he says, it becomes the duty of the Governors of the States, and not the

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President, to see that the federal laws are executed, whereas the Constitution specifically charges the President with this duty. If Gov. Altgeld were right, "the mails might be stopped at Chicago, interstate commerce broken up, and the process of the United States courts refused service, unless the Governor, when disorder was dominant, saw fit to suppress it, or call upon the President to do so." Another point, which Judge Cooley thinks has received no attention, concerns the rights of those to be affected by the strike. The parties were (1) the railroad companies, who, if they had been allowed to be heard, might have demonstrated to the strikers that their action was unreasonable; (2) the Government of the United States, whose postal service was to be interrupted; (3) the people, whose right of transportation was to be suspended. The action of the strikers involved the substitution of arbitrary and despotic power for representative government in ignoring the claims of all these parties.

An idea has got abroad that the Pullman Car Company as a manufacturing concern is "affected with a public interest," so that if the Pullman Car Company makes a dividend of 8 per cent. per annum from the earnings of its sleeping-cars, it ought to pay higher wages to the workmen in its car-building shops than other workmen receive in other car-building shops. Still another popular fallacy is that if the Pullman Company owns and lets houses to its workmen, the rents ought to be reduced whenever the wages are reduced. It is an easy inference from the latter proposition (and Gov Altgeld was prompt to draw it) that if a strike occurs for any reason, the collection of rent ought to cease until the occupants of the houses resume work. All these queer notions took their start in the idea promulgated by Debs that it was incumbent on the Pullman Company to submit to arbitration the question whether it should raise wages to the scale of 1893 or not.

In the course of the examination of witnesses at Chicago on Monday, Mr. Pullman took occasion to deny flatly all of these propositions. Instead of palliating and apologizing and extenuating, he "took the bull by the horns." If he had not done so, the other side would either have pushed him over the precipice completely, or would have turned the whole controversy into a question of details—as, for instance, whether the rents of the houses were fair or not, whether the company could have paid higher wages than it did pay, or whether it would have been safe to draw from its reserve fund in order to build cars at less than cost. Argument upon these points would have been endless, and would have furnished a year's supply of ammunition to Altgeld. Mr. Pullman took safe ground, and the only safe ground, when he smote all these anarchistic conceptions in the face as fast as they came up. Of course he will be subjected to a great deal of ignorant as well as malicious criticism, because a great many well meaning people can see only one thing at a time. They can see a great rich company on the one hand paying 8 per cent. dividends, and on the other a large number of men with families out of work, and suffering perhaps for the necessaries of life. What they do not see is the fact that the Pullman Company must, in the long run, build cars at a profit (or at least without loss), or eventually go down with its employees in one common ruin. The question how much loss it can safely incur in any given period must necessarily be left to the judgment of those who are charged with the responsibility for its affairs, and not to a mayor and board of aldermen or any popular assemblage.

The investigation of Prof. Ely's economic teachings by the regents of the University of Wisconsin is concluded. His accuser, Supt. Wells, practically refused to appear before the committee to support his charges, on the ground that the scope of the inquiry was unfairly limited. He submitted two statements, however, in one of which he admitted that he was not able to prove his charges of personal misconduct. Prof. Ely, on the other hand, explicitly denied that, as charged, he had ever entertained a walking delegate at his house, or had ever taken printing away from a firm because it was non-union, or had given countenance to the strike in Madison. Inasmuch as Supt. Wells's letter containing these grave charges was first published in our columns, we hasten to give Prof. Ely the benefit of his denial of them. These personal matters were wholly between him and Mr. Wells, and if he has been unjustly attacked, as now appears, no one will be better pleased than ourselves to see him vindicated. The nature and tendency of his economic teachings, upon which alone we have pronounced an opinion, are a proper subject for public discussion, upon which different men will hold different views. But we limit ourselves, for the present, to giving as much publicity to Prof. Ely's denials as we did to the charges against him. We may add that our columns would at any time have been open to him or any friend of his to make such denials.

The wickedness of the gold-bugs in pursuing Senator Stewart of Nevada has been often noticed in the press, but who could have imagined that they would send a complaining husband from North Carolina to bring a blackmailing lawsuit against him? This seems to show the depth of their degradation as well as the height of their malice. Such a suit has been brought, it seems, and the Senator, in trying to account for it, says to a *Herald* reporter:

> "There are some things behind this action other than the desire on the part of this man to get money from me. The gold-bugs would like very well to injure my character, and their representatives have conspired to help this man. I have scored some successes against the representatives of the gold interest, and they would like to injure me in any way that they can."

The Senator says that he has expended a great deal of money in hunting up the woman's character in Richmond and other places south of Washington. Why should he go there? That is the place to look for silver-bugs, not gold-bugs. Why did not the Senator spend part of his money investigating Wall Street if he really supposed that the gold-bugs were in this blackmailing conspiracy?

The probability that Russia will take an active part in the quarrel between China and Japan over Corea becomes increasingly strong as one studies her recent military movements and diplomacy in relation to the peninsula. Passing by the massing of her troops, who are also railway and fortification-builders, at Possiette and Vladivostok, we note her remarkable treaty with Corea, signed June 25, 1884. So far as we know, the text of this instrument has not been made public in any European language, but is found in a Japanese translation published last year in Tokio. The Russian is even more detailed than the English treaty, which (in the European view) was considered to be the best of all, and most favorable to the larger Power. Besides providing extra-territoriality for all Russians in Corea, it makes it possible for Russian war-ships to use freely the unopened as well as the open ports of the little kingdom. Although the benefits promised are mutual, yet, since Corea has no navy, and there is no likelihood of her ever availing herself of various stipulations, the text reads wonderfully like the conversations of a bear and a lamb. Although Herr Möllendorf was decorated by the Czar for his active part in the negotiation of this treaty, the Corean Government, whose hand was moved by Li Hung Chang of China, soon gave him *congé*. It is highly suggestive to read this treaty in the light of Russia's diplomacy and interpretation of treaties under Ignatieff in 1861. Then an area of territory as large as France was sliced from China and made a part of Russia, whose borders at once adjoined Corea, with a fordable river, only a few score yards wide, between. Between Gensan, the northern Corean port, and Possiette is less than a day's steaming. Between Russian town and Corean frontier is but twenty-five miles.

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THE NEW YORK JUDICIARY.

THERE are several respects in which the system of administering justice in this State might be improved, but apparently so little agreement exists as to either means or ends that the prospects of reform cannot be thought very bright. We presume that every one, whether lawyer or layman, would concur in holding that the Court of Appeals ought somehow to be enabled to decide cases as fast as they come to it, and not to fall into arrear with its business as it does at present. Beyond this there seems to be no consensus of opinion. Many lawyers say that the result should be attained by limiting the number of cases; but some hold that this should be accomplished by forbidding appeals where the pecuniary amount involved is small, while others exclaim against this proposal, upon the ground that a question of law is of the same importance in a matter of $5,000 as in one of $50,000.

It may be urged against this view that if two trials are allowed, as at present, in the case of actions involving less than $500, the chances of injustice are so small as to make the maxim, *De minimis non curat lex*, applicable. If there is an important and novel question of law involved, it will presumptively receive careful consideration, and when it eventually comes before the Court of Appeals in some case of magnitude, that court will seldom reverse decisions so rendered. But, whatever may be the merits of this argument, it is not regarded as conclusive by those who are opposed to limiting appeals by any money standard, and for this reason, we presume, the committee of the Constitutional Convention has not proposed to alter the present restriction. Nevertheless, when we come down to the gist of the matter, it is evident that in one way or another some of the cases that now go to the Court of Appeals must be kept from going there if that court is to be relieved.

It is true that relief might be obtained, in theory, by adding to the numbers of the appellate judges, and an increase to nine members was actually proposed by the committee. A mistake was made in introducing the "bipartisan" plan of election, so that nothing could defeat the nominees of the two parties; but this was at once observed, and no one appears to defend it. It is evident, however, that the legal profession does not favor an increase in the number of these judges, and it is stated that the present members of the Court of Appeals do not favor it. It is doubtful if a court of nine judges would be as efficient as one of a smaller number, and it is quite probable that its decisions would be less consistent. The court as at present constituted has certainly been a successful institution. Mr. Choate is a competent critic, and at a period when our governmental machinery receives so much unfavorable comment it is a pleasure to hear him declare that the New York Court of Appeals compares favorably with any similar court, State or national. He does not think that the court would do more work with nine than with seven judges, and so many of the profession agree with him that it is quite probable that the whole judiciary article would have been defeated by the people if the Convention had not rejected the provision for the increased number.

Dismissing this suggested remedy as inefficacious, there is nothing left but to reduce the number of appeals, and this the committee proposes to do by reconstituting the General Terms in such a way that their decisions shall be final in some cases where they are not so at present. In theory the Court of Appeals does not consider questions of fact. In practice the judges have always done so whenever they found it convenient, and have declined to do so when they did not. In certain cases they are obliged to review the facts, and any one reading the reports of their decisions will be struck with the full statements of fact that frequently occur in them. It is proposed now to make the practice correspond with the theory, by creating stronger intermediate courts to settle questions of fact finally before the Court of Appeals can be resorted to. The proposed amendment contains a clause specifically precluding review of a unanimous decision of the new intermediate court or so-called "Appellate Division of the Supreme Court," which holds that there is evidence to sustain a finding of fact or a verdict not directed by the court. This does not affect cases of non-suit, or verdicts directed, or reversals by the Appellate Division, or cases where there is a dissent in that court. But it does, as the report of the committee says, "require that when a trial court or jury has decided that a fact is proved, and five judges in the Appellate Division have unanimously held that it is proved, controversy about that fact shall end; and that any question of law mixed with that fact shall be separately raised and presented in order to be reviewed by the Court of Appeals."

There is much to be said in favor of the constitution of these intermediate courts in place of the useless General Terms, and it seems reasonable to expect that they will furnish the relief desired. We should have been glad to see some endeavor made to lower the excessive salaries, which are a premium upon corruption in offices where it is especially deplorable, and to have had the tenure of office extended; but it is idle to attempt too much reform at one time. What is to be dreaded is that the legal profession may not give its hearty support to the amendments proposed. Without such support the people will not be induced to vote for them.

HOW THE REFERENDUM WOULD WORK.

A STRONG appeal has been made by a certain school of political writers in this country for the adoption of the referendum principle, and the submission of proposed laws to the people for their judgment. The advocates of the scheme have been active enough in Massachusetts to secure its endorsement in the platforms of both of the great parties, and the last Legislature came very near taking the necessary steps for submitting an amendment to the Constitution, so as to embody it in the fundamental law.

It is a noteworthy fact that, in all the arguments advanced in favor of the system, it seems to be taken for granted that, if any question were submitted to popular vote, every voter would express his opinion upon it. It has been urged that the State would be benefited by having important laws ratified by the people before they should become operative, and a great deal is said as to the advantages of finding out just how the people feel about them. Since the Massachusetts Legislature adjourned, however, the people of that State have been given an object-lesson in the working of the referendum. For years the city of Boston has been discussing the matter of rapid transit. It had become the burning local question. The newspapers have discussed it at great length. It has been repeatedly before the City Council and the Legislature. All sorts of schemes have been proposed from time to time. Finally, what is known as the Meigs plan was endorsed by the Legislature, upon the condition that it should be approved by the people. A special election was called for the sole purpose of deciding the question. There was an animated canvass, and, according to the theory of the referendum, there ought to have been a great outpouring of the people to improve the opportunity thus afforded to decide a most important issue. In point of fact, the total vote was much less than half the poll in the last election for Governor—not quite 30,000, against over 70,000 last November.

The 29,704 men who took the trouble to go to the polls were divided pretty evenly in opinion, 15,542 voting yes and 14,162 no. An important question of public policy was thus decided by the votes of less than a quarter of the men who turn out in an ordinary State election like last year's. Worse still, there is great reason to doubt whether a large proportion of those who voted either way had a clear understanding of the matter. The Boston *Herald* heard of two cases where the voters supposed that

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they were recording their views on the license question, and voted yes because they favored the sale of liquor! When one paper accidentally learns of two such cases, there is every reason to suppose that hundreds of votes were cast quite as ignorantly.

There was nothing exceptional about this Boston experience. Two amendments to the Constitution were submitted to the people at the recent State election in Alabama. One proposed to allow the city of Birmingham to increase her tax-rate, which is necessary for her prosperity. The other proposed to allow any city or school district to vote a tax of one-fourth of one per cent. for educational purposes, to supplement the fund raised by State taxation. There was no serious opposition to either amendment, but both failed. They died of sheer neglect. The Constitution requires that a majority of the voters who go to the polls shall vote in the affirmative to carry an amendment, and most men were so much interested in the contest between Oates and Kolb that they did not vote either way on either of the amendments; the total yeas and nays not reaching half the total vote for Governor. The election thus failed to cast any light upon the question whether the proposed changes meet with the approbation of the people.

Almost every vote on a constitutional amendment in this State has been a proof of popular indifference. In 1869, on an amendment providing for equal assessment and taxation, 462,072 votes were cast (for and against), while for the head of the State ticket (Secretary of State) a total of 641,707 votes was cast. In 1876 the people voted on two of the most important constitutional amendments ever submitted to them—those placing the canals and State prisons under single heads instead of the expensive commissions. The total vote of the State for President that year was 1,015,502. The total vote on the public-works amendment was 614,985, and on the prisons amendment 611,184.

The same thing has happened over and over again in other States. It is the rule in many commonwealths that an amendment must receive the affirmative votes of a majority of the voters to carry it; and it is a common thing to have propositions fail to which there is no serious opposition, because those who really favor the suggested change do not care enough about it to take the trouble to express their opinion.

The advocates of the referendum have been arguing the matter as though it were only a question of theory. They say: "Consult the people freely. They will be glad to record their opinion, and we shall find out just what they think." This would be well enough if the matter had never been tried. But it has been tried, repeatedly and thoroughly, in different parts of the country. Experience has shown that it is the hardest thing in the world to get voters to express themselves on any issue except that of candidates for office. If other propositions are submitted at the regular election, most men who go to the polls will pay no attention to them. If they are submitted at a special election, the majority will not go to the polls; and a good many of those who do go will not know what they are voting for. In either case the referendum breaks down utterly.

The members of the Constitutional Convention did well on Friday to reject the proposed amendment permitting the Legislature to send bills to a public referendum.

THE TRIALS OF THE STATISTICIAN.

It was once said that the only good book which the Spaniards had was the one which exposed the absurdity of all the rest. We will not compare Mr. Carroll Wright's article upon "The Limitations and Difficulties of Statistics" in the current *Yale Review* with the Adventures of Don Quixote; but we are inclined to think that it exceeds in merit a great deal of the statistical work for which Mr. Wright has been nominally responsible. He will not regard this as an unjust aspersion, for, as he points out, the real responsibility for deceptive and misleading figures, or those at least that emanate from Government offices, belongs to the legislative bodies. These bodies are increasingly fond of ordering returns that can be furnished only after the most prolonged and elaborate investigation, and that frequently cannot be obtained at all. But what the ordinary Congressman desires is some sweeping generalization which he can use in the speech that he is preparing for delivery in a day or two, and which will answer his purpose, in many cases, equally well whether it is true or false. There is a story which, if not true, is at least well invented, of a clerk who responded to a demand of this character by saying: "Let me know what you want to prove, and I will furnish the necessary figures." Every one familiar with what passes with the public for statistics knows how easily this can be done.

As Mr. Wright observes, the science or art of statistics is nothing but classification. A certain number of facts are taken which resemble one another in certain respects, they are thrown into classes according to their common features, and the results are expressed numerically. So long as the facts are simple and the points of resemblance few, the danger of error is small. To ascertain the number of human beings existing in a certain place on a certain day is perhaps the easiest statistical task undertaken upon a large scale by governments, yet a moment's consideration is enough to show that the results can be only approximately true. The census-takers may, and it is known that they often do, falsify the returns. When they are paid, as they often have been, according to the number of heads which they return, it is obvious that they are tempted to swell the figures of population. There are always people who cannot be seen—who are asleep, or sick, or away—and the enumerator has to accept other evidence than that of his own senses as to these. There are great numbers who are to be found in more than one place upon the same day, and some of them are likely to be counted twice. There are others who for the same reason may not be counted at all. The gross discrepancies between the censuses taken in the city of New York by the United States and by the municipal police are too recent to be altogether forgotten, and they illustrate the influence which political considerations may have upon what might be supposed to be the simplest of arithmetical problems.

But when the census-taker is required to do more than simply count the population, his task becomes infinitely more difficult. Investigations as to age are so notoriously unsatisfactory as to give immortality to jokes that must have been stale long before the Christian era. It is said that Wat Tyler's rebellion was occasioned by too pressing inquiries as to the age of his daughter, and Mr. Wright remarks that "an examination of the age statistics under any census or in any country will show a concentration upon the fives. It is much easier for a man to say he is twenty-five, or thirty, or thirty-five, when the enumerator asks the question, than to give his exact age." Nevertheless, Congress has from census to census increased the number of questions to be answered by the people until it is now twenty-nine, covering age, sex, nationality, employment, physical conditions, educational qualifications, naturalization, disease, etc., etc. Many of these questions are answered in the absence of the heads of families by children and servants, frequently with the most grotesque results. In some regions the death-rate has been ascertained by this scientific process to be 2 in 1,000. The superintendent of the census, of course, knows that such figures are false, but he has to use them, and we have the spectacle alluded to by Mr. Wright of a superintendent warning the public to place no confidence in his returns, while prominent physicians were presenting the conclusions to be deduced from them to scientific bodies.

We frequently see startling figures as to the increasing number of the insane presented in the newspapers, giving rise to melancholy predictions. There is probably not the slightest reason for disquiet upon the subject. The definition of insanity, as every one knows, is a

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fluctuating one, and it is not only true that many persons are now classed as insane who would not formerly have been so classed, but also more cases are returned than of old. What is true of the statistics of insanity is far more true of those of crime. We do not hesitate to assert that it is utterly impossible to say whether crime in this country is increasing or not. This is not quite true in England, for a number of reasons, and especially because the country is not, like our own, cut up into a number of jurisdictions; but even there no one need attempt to generalize without a practical acquaintance with the details of criminal legislation, of criminal court practice, of police administration, and of prison discipline.

Mr. Wright goes through the whole list of subjects commonly dealt with by the bureaus of statistics—agriculture, manufactures, wages, farm-mortgages, public debts, assessed valuations, etc.—and shows how little value is to be attached to the returns on all these subjects. The worthlessness of the census taken in 1890 was long since exposed in these columns, and the public have not quite forgotten the colossal blunder in the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury which swelled our imports some $70,000,000 in a single year. But Mr. Wright cheerfully contends that bad figures are better than none, and that we may get nearer the truth if we keep on. Considering the scandalous waste of money in the Census Bureau, to say nothing of the cost of Mr. Wright's own department, and the countless others of like character which the politicians have foisted upon our State governments, we are not so sanguine. Nothing is better worth paying for than accurate information, statistical or other; but the value of false and misleading figures must be expressed by the negative sign.

THE CONSERVATIVE REACTION IN EUROPE.

THE flat failure of the demonstration in London on Sunday against the House of Lords is only one of many signs that that decrepit body is not exactly on its deathbed yet. Of course, the occasion chosen by the National League for the Abolition of the House of Lords was not a happy one. Comparatively few people outside of Ireland took any great interest in the Evicted Tenants bill which the Lords had so incontinently rejected. The fight could much better be made on some measure of national importance, to which a great party was passionately committed, as it cannot be said any longer that the Liberal party, as a whole, is committed to any measure relating exclusively to Ireland. The rejection of the Home-Rule bill furnished a better challenge to a life-and-death struggle. On that issue there was a general disposition among Liberals to make the fight, but Mr. Gladstone discouraged it, and the golden moment passed.

Still, aside from all such questions of strategy and opportunity, there is no denying that the lords are much easier in their minds than they were a year ago. They do not imagine that they are any more respected or better liked, but they have become convinced that the upper chamber will last their time at any rate. They are willing to be considered hateful if only it is admitted that they are a hateful necessity. In this situation their spirits are distinctly rising. Where they used to be melancholy or alarmed or angry, they are now jocose—as jocose as lords ever are. Lord Salisbury, the other day, grew quite jocular when alluding to the threats of abolition, and said that he would fix the date for abolishing the House of Lords at just six months before the Commons were abolished also. Among the radical Liberals, too, there is perceptibly a change of expectation, if not of hope, in this matter of the progress of pure democracy in Great Britain. It was not long ago that they were saying, when the house of hereditary legislators did something more than usually absurd, "What a jolly smash we will make of all that pretty soon." Now they are less sanguine, and have moved the date of the jolly smash far ahead.

Over the Channel, in the land of untrammelled democracy, the swing back towards conservatism is fully as marked. The way the sweeping anti-anarchist laws were put through Parliament in hot haste and by tremendous majorities was an indication of the change which had come over the dream of French democracy. And there is evidence a plenty that this was not simply a temporary panic or reaction of sympathy caused by Carnot's assassination. A contributor to the *Figaro* has been travelling extensively in rural France, and he reports a great change of view among the stiffest republicans of the provinces. Everywhere they asked him about the new President, and their main anxiety was to learn if he was a man of vigor and resolution, with the "necessary grip." One characteristic conversation reported was as follows:

> "I am a republican, you understand, and have been ever since the time of Thiers. I cried with Gambetta, 'Le cléricalisme, voilà l'ennemi.' I believed with Carnot that the danger was from the conservatives. I thought the secularizing laws were necessary, and approved the military laws and the school laws and the organization of trade unions, and I endorsed strikes. But what's the use? The evidence is clear that we've gone too far, and everybody is convinced of that even if he does not dare to say so. We are simply perishing with these inflammatory measures, destructive of all authority as they are. What we want of Casimir-Perier is to reverse the engine."

The cause of this conservative reaction is clear to the dullest mind. People are suddenly becoming reluctant to part with any institution, however offensive or anachronistic, which stands for governmental authority and social stability, because they see all authority and stability seriously menaced. Many who were bold innovators a couple of years ago, ready to cry "Down with the Lords!" at the top of their lungs, have begun to look about at their fellow-innovators, and are getting alarmed at the company they are in. Here walks a man with a bomb under his coat, and there is a reformer who wants to abolish private property and rent and "industrial slavery," and who will abolish also law and custom and the House of Commons or anything else that stands in his way. These are the men, with crimes of violence as a part of their political creed, and the destruction of the whole framework of society as their aim, who have been like a draught of *elixir vitæ* to the House of Lords, and are at this moment playing into the hands of the conservatives in every country of Europe.

What they intended, they said, was to hasten the evolution of democracy. The existing process was too slow to suit them. Things were moving their way, they admitted, but it would take a century or two, at the present rate, to bring about what they aim at. So why not hurry up the evolution a little by the aid of incendiary speeches and confiscating laws and an occasional explosion of dynamite? But, alas! democratic evolution is a slow coach that will not be hurried. When you try to frighten it into a faster pace by throwing bombs under the wheels, the postilions have a fashion of turning soldiers, and the passengers begin shooting out of the windows in the most ugly and disheartening way. Then they get out and hold a council of war, and ask soberly if the coach has not been going too fast instead of too slow. Meanwhile, the men in too great a hurry are riddled with bullets or beheaded, or left to watch the painfully slow evolution of society out of a prison window.

HADLEIGH FARM COLONY.

LONDON, July 30, 1894.

IN a recent number of the *Nation* (July 5, "The Real Problem of the Unemployed") appear these words: "The real problem, therefore, is not to provide work, but to make men competent and willing to work." This is exactly what the Salvation Army professes to do in the Hadleigh Farm Colony, an outcome of the 'Darkest England' scheme propounded in 1890. Gen. Booth obtained more than £100,000 from the English people, and of this sum £85,000 has been spent on the purchase of a farm in Essex (on the north bank of the Thames, and about six miles from the open sea) and on its proper equipment for the training of some 300 men to be drawn and constantly renewed from the London slums.

Shortly after reading in the *Nation* the article already mentioned, I took the train at

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Liverpool Street Station for Rayleigh, the nearest Great Eastern station to the famous colony, established three and a half years ago, for the express purpose of examining and reporting upon how far the colony fulfils its aim of training men to work. The Governor, Col. Stitt, sent a vehicle to meet me, and for some miles I was driven over tame but pretty English scenery—beautiful trees, peaceful cottages, grazing cattle, fields of waving corn, green pastures and quiet waters. Presently we descended at the Governor's office, a modest, not to say mean-looking, wooden shanty, reminding one of the dictum of a lady visiting the colony, who observed that they had built a palace for the cows and a pigsty for the Governor. Col. Stitt seems a suitable man for the post: a good eye for land, a kindly manner calculated to produce respect but not fear from the men, infinite patience and faith in human nature; not a man to stand much humbug, nor yet one to expect to make silken purses out of sows' ears. He has a mixture of Scotch, Irish, and French blood in his veins, visible in his judgment, foresight, kindly humor, and suavity. Being busy, he made me over for an hour or two to the care of Staff-Captain Smith, his aide-de-camp and secretary, and in his company I visited several buildings before the midday meal.

The farm consists of some 2,800 acres, of which 1,000 acres at certain periods of the tide are under water, much of which is nevertheless useful for grazing purposes. A long creek or bayou of the Thames lies to the south of this estate; fishing rights in it are let off for the sum of £140 per annum. Three small farms are also let off. The colony managers have the mixed satisfaction of knowing that their settlement has greatly raised the value of land in the neighborhood, as they find when they want to buy portions dividing their estate. A small railway, connecting London, Tilbury, and South End, divides the low marsh land from the higher land sloping to the north. The colony has four miles of frontage to good country roads, and a water frontage of three miles to the Thames. Excellent authorities were consulted as to the purchase of this estate. Mr. Bird, inspector to the Board of Agriculture, gave it as his opinion that "no more desirable, suitable, or appropriate property for the purpose of the scheme could be obtained," and this opinion was confirmed by other competent persons.

What strikes the eye of the visitor to the colony is the scattered appearance of the buildings. They are dotted about here and there, numerous, but far from imposing. True, there is a street, but one side thereof is mainly composed of corrugated-iron cottages, which, though tidy and even trim, are of small architectural pretension. To the right is one of the largest buildings, the Salvation Army Barracks, built at a cost of £630, and rented by the spiritual wing from the social wing at £1 per week. The dormitories are eight in number, of various sizes, and with a little arrangement are capable of holding 350 men. I carefully inspected them. The men are provided each with an iron bedstead, seaweed mattress covered with American cloth, a box for private belongings. My visit was in July, but I was shown the arrangement which exists for heating the dormitories in winter. A lavatory with between thirty and forty basins permits that number to wash at one time; there are four baths at one end of the laundry for the sake of a good supply of hot water. The beds were being sponged with paraffin as I entered, Capt. Smith informing me that the struggle for cleanliness has to be incessant. Most of the men pretty readily acquire decent habits, but the system of recruiting from the London slums lays them open to fresh danger from vermin with each arrival. Many of the men, too, have been on the tramp for weeks or months. They arrive at the colony dirty, footsore, eaten by vermin; boots that will hardly hold to the feet, no shirts to their backs. A crematorium has been built in which the necessary baking process is carried on.

The dormitories are not all exactly alike. As a man rises, as his power to work improves, he gradually acquires little comforts, a better bed, such privacy as a cubicle affords, an improvement in his dietary. The Governor of the colony binds himself to supply only lodging, board, and work. Even the clothes which are supplied to men whose case is desperate, are paid for. This is done by a bonus system, paid weekly on Friday. The colonists receive sums varying from sixpence to four or five shillings, in a few cases as much as ten shillings. Even partially reclaimed workers are not allowed to handle all their bonus; a credit account with the Governor is opened for each man, who must compulsorily save two-thirds of his bonus. In the case of drunkards, great care is exercised with regard to touching even a third of their sum, as outside the colony is the village public-house, a standing temptation to such men. Practically, a night's lodging is not refused to any destitute man in need of it, who appears to claim the help of the Army. On the occasion of my visit, there were 260 men under the care of the Governor. For the most part, they are cases selected from the "Elevators," or Salvation Army workshops in the slums, sent to the Essex farm, on the recommendation of a gentleman of independent means who has some knowledge of the character and suitability of the men whom he recommends.

After visiting the dormitories, we passed to the library, well-stocked with illustrated periodicals, to the laundry, kitchen, refectory, smoke room, boot-making department, to a capital dairy fitted up with the latest improvements, to the piggeries, with fat, snorting pigs rooting among the fodder, to the palatial cowshed with forty-eight sleek milch kine, excellent specimens of Salvation cattle, to the tomato houses, with heavy clusters of ripening fruit. A small drawback seemed to be the bad roads and the plague of flies which almost infested the place. The managers urgently need £2,000 to make roads; walking on clay in wet weather is a heavy job, and housewives complain that the clay will not remain outside. Flies seem to abound in the neighborhood of farming operations; cattle and manure attract them in thousands. Their size, audacity, as evinced in an insolent buzz, struck me as phenomenal; their determination to inspect everything far surpassed my own.

The number of the colonists has been mentioned as 260; it must be understood that besides there are about 100 permanent officials, superintendents, heads of departments, foremen of different industries, who do not change, and who form the framework of the unskilled labor; they are the element which lends cohesion to the scheme. About 40 acres have been planted with fruit-trees and plants, and 60 acres have been converted into a market garden. Both these enterprises pay well; the colony is within 6 miles of Southend-on-the-Sea, a health resort filled with visitors just at the time the colony has large quantities of fruit and vegetables to dispose of. As already stated, a small railway runs through the farm colony; considerable dissatisfaction exists because the company shows no inclination to treat the colony reasonably in the matter of a small station or even a good siding. In the matter of fruit it is safe to say that Salvation strawberries, rasps, currants, yield to none in quality, and in a few years the fruit-trees will, it is expected, give an excellent return for expense incurred. Fruit-picking within reach of London is generally given over to the denizens of the slums, who are conveyed to the scenes of action in train-loads, and usually convert the rural scene into more or less of a slum during their labors. At the colony great care is exercised in the choice of pickers; the moral experiment, which forms a large half of the scheme, will not allow of indiscriminate association. For the same reason the colony is as complete in itself as the Governor can make it, in order to prevent the necessity for much communication with the village. Even a tobacco license has been obtained, for though thorough-going Salvationists do not approve of tobacco, they find that some concession to human weakness is the highest wisdom. Permission to go beyond the colony has to be asked, but as the tract is several miles in length, this is not so great a hardship as one might fancy. Games, too, are provided for the men; football, cricket, quoits, racing, jumping, tug-of-war, are all encouraged.

The very night before my visit, so the Colonel told me, a man had asked permission to attend the village church, and as he was steady and industrious, he readily obtained it. Alas, he visited the public-house, spent his ready money on bad whiskey, and the next morning, feeling that he had disgraced himself and the colony, he decided to depart, and informed the Colonel of his decision. Good; his account should be made up and his savings made over to him. When he appeared at the office, crestfallen, bundle in hand, in his kindly way Colonel Stitt led him to talk over the whole affair, to acknowledge the error he had made; and by wise encouragement as to the good work he had done, and the physical benefit received from his stay at Hadleigh, the man was led to reconsider the matter and finally to return to his place.

Later in the day the Governor had a trap harnessed, and we drove as far as the roads would permit, to inspect other industries in operation on the farm. A rabbit warren with 1,200 rabbits reared for the market and a thriving poultry-farm interested me much. We drove round fields of waving corn, wheat, barley, oats. The rich alluvial ground grows excellent crops, and unless rain-storms do mischief now, the harvest will be the heaviest England has had for years. A wharf has been built on the water-way; cheap water-carriage may possibly induce the railway to hear reason in the matter of a good siding. We visited the saw-mills, the wheelwright's shops, blacksmith's shop, the brick-making industry. This last is somewhat important, employing forty men. Excellent brick clay is found on the land, and this is wisely utilized. Nearly all the bricks used in the colony have been made at the kilns, and a large and growing market is found for the bricks both in the immediate neighborhood and in London. As already stated, a considerable number of the cottages are built of corrugated zinc; the dormitories have a brick foundation, but are mainly wooden. On returning from the wharf, we rode back in front of a locomotive. The colony has been enterprising enough to build a railway connecting the wharf and brickworks, at

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an expense of £8,000. This was done by the advice of a noted railway contractor, who agreed to build it without any profit to himself.

Probably it would be a difficult matter to get any two experts out of a score to be of one mind as to the advisability of the expense incurred by the colony in these various enterprises. About eighteen months ago rumor was rife that the expense had been enormous, that money had been thrown away doing this and that, and that the Booth family were making an uncommonly good thing of the 'Darkest England' scheme. It may here be said by the way that the social and spiritual wings of the Salvation Army are kept perfectly distinct, both in management and in their accounts. The Booth family are, to the best of my knowledge, all engaged in spiritual work; the colony does not even afford a post for one of them. It is difficult to get a valuable opinion on the subject of the outlay incurred at Hadleigh; but as the rumors against the Booth family grew, and proved very distressing to them, and likely to cripple the work of the Army unless authoritatively contradicted, a committee of inquiry was appointed to investigate the manner in which the moneys collected for the 'Darkest England' scheme had been expended. The result of the inquiry was damaging to those who spread these reports. The committee found that there was no reason to suppose that Gen. Booth or his family derived any benefit whatever from the scheme. They agreed that it was difficult to form an opinion as to whether the money spent on the farm had been judiciously laid out, but gave great weight to the opinion of practical men, who all without exception approved the farm colony. On the whole, they found no evidence of waste of money, but considered the scheme had been well thought out and every reasonable effort made to secure success. At the time the committee of inquiry published their report, 1,002 men had been received on the colony. Of these, 462 were sent to situations; 140 left on their own account, some having run away; 88 were dismissed; 312 remained on the farm.

Talking with the Governor over the grave difficulty of reforming men, of changing the human rubbish of the London slums into desirable colonists, he did not attempt to conceal that they had their failures. Having to do with a considerable number of men who have never been used to regular work, and who are at first physically not very fit for continuous effort at pretty severe labor, their experience is that these men count very much upon their work, some of them seeming to fancy that the colony is making a fortune out of them. The Governor was of opinion that if it were not for the moral responsibility they incurred by care of the men, if they were not burdened with the anxiety of finding work for them in wet and wintry weather—in a word, if their relations with their "hands" were those of the ordinary employer and employed—the colony would soon be a monetary success. It is only fair to remember that this part of their work is very heavy, entailing mental strain and anxiety, breaking continuity of work, involving relations with persons alive to the axiom, "All for each," but not "Each for all." Especially anxious is the time beginning on Friday night (pay-time) and lasting until Monday morning. From Saturday noon to Monday morning is the great drinking-time of the English working-classes. When the hours of labor are finished, the men are under the care of a warden, who attends to discipline, and whose vigilance has been found strictly necessary. On the whole, it seems probable that the colonists are not very grateful for what is done for them, though there are men who write and thank the officials for the fresh encouragement and start in life which they obtained at Hadleigh.

It must be remembered that the colony suffers a good deal from lack of funds, which cripples it in two ways. It prevents various developments both useful and necessary upon the colony itself, especially those which would provide the men with work in winter. Secondly, the lack of funds will not allow of the beginning of the Oversea Colony, an essential part of the scheme, which would insure the drafting of reformed colonists to another land. Their training is often lost, or seems to be lost, for lack of proper completion and the correlation of the different parts of the 'Darkest England' scheme. Gen. Booth has had 8,000 square miles of land surveyed with a view to establishing this Oversea Colony, land of astonishing fertility, with tin, coal, and timber upon it. In passing judgment on Hadleigh we must remember that the loom of time has not yet woven the complete pattern; that the human material the colony works upon is not of first-class quality; and lastly, that more than 50 per cent. of the colonists seem to turn out well, and a considerable number may be said to have shown improvement.

On an average, the colonists seem to stay from six to eight months on the colony, a period by no means long. Often, on leaving, they have a sum of £3 or £4 with which to start life afresh. One or two boards of guardians have sent the Governor able-bodied paupers to set to work, paying five shillings weekly for each man. England spends £10,000,000 annually on a gigantic failure known as the administration of the poor laws. It seems astonishing that she should not be alive to the need of subsidizing the Hadleigh Farm Colony, especially in view of the fact that wretched land-laws and bad social conditions have produced the social failures with which the Farm Colony deals. In Australia the different governments have subsidized three Salvation Army farm colonies, established on Hadleigh lines. The Governors of Australian provinces evince the greatest interest in the experiment, not only in the form of a subsidy, but in personal visits and in moral support. One might almost fancy that the advent of the York baby was of infinitely more importance to the solid but sentimental Briton than a social experiment of such magnitude as the one I have faintly indicated.

C. S. Bremner.

THE FOURTH CENTENARY OF CORREGGIO.

London, August 4, 1894.

Four centuries have elapsed since the birth of Correggio. Parma is celebrating the event by industrial exhibitions and agricultural shows. We can celebrate it in our own way by trying to go back of the almost delirious adulation on the one hand, and of the Ruskinian vituperation on the other, of which Correggio has been the object.

Surely criticism may occupy itself with other tasks than praise or blame. It should endeavor first of all to discover and define the artist's real capacities and qualities. Then, if our interest be merely personal, we can abandon ourselves to liking or disliking; while if it be historical, we know what to think of the age which adored or abhorred the artist in question. What, then, was the quality of Correggio's genius as revealed in his works? To appreciate this quality we must first note with what other artists Correggio shared the Italian field of painting, and what influence went to form him.

At the beginning of the sixteenth century, Italy saw the rise, in every school, of painters in whose work the element of beauty and of real life so far outweighed the elements which were merely characteristic of their own school and epoch that their pictures, even now, can be enjoyed with no special preparation. To appreciate Raphael, or Michelangelo, or Titian requires none of the education in history and in the art that one must have to appreciate such masters of the fifteenth century as the Vivarini, Pier dei Franceschi, or Botticelli. Correggio is one of the "modern" artists, and holds among the painters of the district between Bologna, Ferrara, and Parma the place that Raphael holds among the painters of central Italy, Michelangelo and Andrea del Sarto among the Florentines, or Titian and Lotto among the Venetians; and he is as much the outcome of the artistic endeavor of that part of Italy as Andrea, Raphael, and Titian are of Tuscany, Umbria, and Venice.

Correggio may have got his rudiments from some local master in his native town, or in the neighboring town of Modena; but in his very earliest paintings he shows himself as the unmistakable pupil of Costa and Francia, in whose workshop at Bologna he must already have been before 1509. In that year Costa went to Mantua, and probably took Correggio with him, for several pictures painted by Correggio in the next few years bear witness to the study of certain works by Mantegna which he could have seen in Mantua alone. At Mantua also he came in contact with a painter who saved him, perhaps, from becoming merely a perfected Costa or Francia. This was Dosso Dossi, an artist of great imaginative power, with a mastery of color as splendid as that of any Venetian, and with a skill in the treatment of light and shadow at first almost unrivalled. He communicated an ardor to the young Correggio—whose own nature was from the first sensitive and lyrical—which prevented him from painting all the rest of his life pictures merely dreamy, sweet, and antiquated, such as Costa's. It was to Dosso, too, that Correggio owed the first impulse to that study of effects of light and shadow, and of aerial perspective, in which he afterwards went beyond everything that had been done before him.

The nine or ten pictures which Correggio painted before his twenty-first year show with remarkable clearness just what was his own personal quality and what he owed to his masters and to Dosso. The forms and types, nearly all that has to do with the mere design, come from Costa and Francia, while the treatment of light and shadow and much of the coloring is distinctly Dossoesque. But the intensely felt religious emotion, impregnated with poetry, which is expressed in the faces and in the landscape accompaniments, is his own, and is as perfectly distinct from the dreaminess of Costa as from the fiery fancy of Dosso. These earliest works are his most genuinely religious pictures, and in all art it would be hard to find their equals for delicacy and sincerity of feeling. Their aim is not, like that of the religious paintings of earlier generations, to inspire us with contrition and awe, but to put us in sympathy with the marvellous poetry and the deep humanity of the story of Christ. All through his life Correggio's nature continued unchanged; it remained sensitive

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and lyrical. When he had a subject to paint, he chose to dwell entirely upon the elements of feeling in it, and to express them with the utmost rapture. This may be called the law of his being, and he is completely satisfactory when the subject gives full scope for his genius, and less satisfactory when the subject does not lend itself to a rapturously emotional treatment.

In his youth, his lack of skill, his tentativeness, his own immaturity, hampered him. He had not yet that mastery which afterwards enabled him at the same time to express all the rapture of feeling within him and to make it seem real. This required an extraordinary skill in draughtsmanship, and, above all, an understanding of light and shadow, which he attained only later, although early enough in his brief life. At first it was as if his only instrument had been the harp and he expressed only what the harp could express. But his means of expression increased until at last he had in his hands an instrument as powerful and as responsive as the orchestra. So in his early pictures, his expression of emotion was restrained and quiet, and was admirably suited to the religious subjects which he then treated. But in such a picture as the "Madonna with St. Francis" at Dresden, painted in his twenty-first year, the emotion is already a trifle too much for the subject. He represents the Madonna and saints, wishing to keep to the architectonic form of the conventional altar-piece. But the figures have so much feeling of their own to express that they stand uneasily within the bounds of the prescribed composition. In such a picture, however, as the "Zingarella" at Naples, painted only a little later, where he had nothing to express but the emotion of a mother passionately caressing her child, no touch of exaggeration is felt. So also with the "Nativity" in the Uffizi, painted a few years later, where there is nothing but a young mother trying to attract the attention of her little baby. Correggio is in fact faultless as an artist whenever the emotion he had to portray was purely human and joyous, no matter how refined or how ecstatic.

He spent the twelve most productive years of his life, from 1518 to 1530, at Parma, and there he found ample opportunity for the kind of painting in which he could give full swing to his genius for the expression of intense feeling. In the choir of San Giovanni he painted the Coronation of the Virgin. The Madonna here does not, as in the usual treatment of the subject, kneel like a meek handmaiden, crushed with the honor that is being conferred upon her, but throws herself into it with rapture, as into a joy of which she means to possess herself to the utmost. The St. John in the same church seems likewise to abandon himself to the ecstasy of his inspiration. In the cupola of the cathedral he painted his famous Ascension of the Virgin. She is surrounded by figures all striving to be on a level with her own intense exultation as she gives herself up to the unspeakable bliss of rising to the highest heaven. The abandonment to the utmost possible human joy is far greater here than even in Titian's "Assunta." Every one of the whole host of accompanying angels seems an embodiment of the jubilant triumph which the Virgin herself feels, and which sweeps through the whole universe at the same moment.

Having such a preference for a rapturously emotional treatment, Correggio was at his best only in such subjects as these, and not in subjects which required the expression of sorrow or of resignation. So, in a picture like the "Martyrdom of Placidus and Flavia" (in the Parma Gallery), Flavia abandons herself in an ecstatic vision, and is therefore one of the finest figures Correggio ever painted, while Placidus, who tries to look believing and resigned, succeeds only in looking jesuitical. In his one Pietà, also, Correggio is far from being at his best, although the dead Christ is a splendid figure, just because in him there is nothing that suggests sorrow or pain. Again, with such a preference for an emotional treatment, he naturally ended by choosing subjects in which there was nothing to fetter his full expression. These he found in the love stories of the gods; and in his "Danaë," in his "Io," and in his "Leda," he portrays human beings so utterly given up to an all-possessing emotion that they tremble with it like the ripple of water under a breeze.

It was his passion, too, for the expression of joyful feeling that led Correggio to seize every chance to paint *putti*—little children as artless and simple as real childhood, but bearing far greater joys than childhood ever felt. His first commission at Parma was to decorate the parlor of the Convent of San Paolo; and this he filled with *putti* peeping from behind trellises, sporting with garlands, and playing with instruments of the chase, all in eager sympathy with the huntress Diana, who forms the centre of the composition. His success in this, no doubt, gained him the commissions that kept him so long in Parma; for, from its beginnings, the Renaissance had made the *putto* the symbol of its own joy in life and of its own emotions, and a painter who put into his *putti* all the life, simplicity, and restlessness of real childhood, and at the same time all the immense rapture and joy in mere existence that Italy was feeling in the beginning of the sixteenth century, could not fail to be appreciated.

This intense and rapturous emotion might have become cloying in the end if Correggio had not always been as unstudied and as unconscious as he was emotional. In his mere craftsmanship, too, he seems to have been the most unconscious of artists, never dreaming that he would be admired or blamed for his astonishing foreshortenings, or for his broad, almost modern, treatment of light and shadow. In this, indeed, he had scarcely a rival, even among the later Venetians. None of them, not even Tintoretto, treated effects of diffused light with such success as he. In his ripe years he loved effects of broad daylight and landscapes sparkling with sunshine, as if he could not have light enough to bring nature into complete harmony with his own rapture. His landscapes seem therefore to pulsate with joy under the full sunlight, and he gives fields and trees that look of gayety which they have in the early summer.

His coloring was throughout on a level with the intense joyfulness of his feeling and with his sunny landscapes. Distinct from the Venetians, he was in no way inferior to them, except that color and brushwork did not with him, as it did with the Venetians, become a distinct instrument of expression. But where he is unrivalled, either by them or perhaps by any other Italian painters, is in the flesh painting of the one or two perfectly preserved pictures which we still have. Flesh that looks so real as that of the "Antiope" in the Louvre, it would, perhaps, be hard to find anywhere else.

Correggio's genius, as we have seen, was throughout emotional and lyrical. Lyrical feeling rarely goes with the power of unemotional observation such as good portraiture requires. It is not surprising, therefore, that not a single portrait by Correggio exists.

It happens that the English poets afford striking parallels to the Italian painters. Thus, there is a decided similarity of genius between Shakspere and Titian, and between Michelangelo and Milton. A lover of these poets cannot help finding the corresponding painters much more intelligible. But centuries had to elapse before emotions so intense as those Correggio felt found expression in literature—in Shelley when he is at his best, and in Keats when he is perfect.

BERNHARD BERENSON.

Notes.

GINN & CO. announce for next month 'The Roman Pronunciation of Latin; Why we use it, and How we use it,' by Prof. Frances E. Lord of Wellesley College. They will also publish in their College Series the 'Odes and Epodes of Horace,' edited, with introduction and notes, by Prof. C. L. Smith.

The long-awaited 'Shakspere Concordance' of Mr. John Bartlett is now promised by the Macmillans for issue early in September. The 400,000 entries witness to the aim at completeness, while the care taken to secure minute accuracy is shown in the fact that references are made, not alone by act and scene, but as well by line, according to the numbering of the Globe edition of Shakspere. The same firm's new edition of Mrs. Oliphant's 'Makers of Florence' will be in four volumes, sold separately, which will be devoted, respectively, to Dante, Savonarola, the Castle Builders, and the Piagnoni Painters.

G. P. Putnam's Sons will issue in the autumn a volume of poems by Francis Howard Williams of Philadelphia, mostly unpublished hitherto. From their press also will speedily appear part ii. of 'Social England,' edited by H. D. Traill. This instalment carries the narrative to the death of Henry VII.

From the Scribners' list of forthcoming books we single out the third and concluding volume of Pasquier's 'Memoirs'; 'Johannine Theology,' by Prof. G. B. Stevens of Yale; 'William Shakspere: A Study of Elizabethan Literature,' by Prof. Barrett Wendell; Mrs. Alice Morse Earle's 'Costume of Colonial Times'; 'The Making of the Ohio Valley States,' by Samuel Adams Drake; 'Musicians and Music Lovers, and Other Essays,' by William F. Apthorp; and finally, the Sherman Letters, being the correspondence between the General and the Senator.

Another American general, R. E. Lee, is to be the subject of the next biography in the "Great Commanders Series," published by the Appletons. This volume is to be done by Gen. Fitzhugh Lee, whose military and personal relations to the Confederate chief argue special equipment for the task.

The problems of the theatre are among the most interesting just now in Greek archæology. We note the announcement by Klincksieck, Paris, of an 'Étude sur l'organisation matérielle du théâtre athénien,' by O. Navarre, Maître de Conférences à la Faculté des Lettres at Toulouse. As to the stage-question, we imagine that, notwithstanding the publications of Bodensteiner, White, Pickard, Capps, and many other able students, no one who has not studied the theatres in Greece itself will make up his mind before the appearance of the long-promised work of Dörpfeld and Reisch.

Under the title of 'Shylock and Others'

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(London: Fisher Unwin; New York: Scribners), Mr. G. H. Radford has gathered eight little essays closely akin to the paper on *Falstaff* contributed by him to the first series of Mr. Birrell's 'Obiter Dicta.' The paper on *Shylock* is refreshingly free from the pedantry which weights down so much Shaksperian criticism; and those on the "Sources of 'Hamlet'" and "*Hamlet's* Madness" are useful in drawing attention to what many commentators ignore—the extent to which the great dramatist was bound by the plots he borrowed from his predecessors.

Bernard Palissy is one of those men who, as Töpffer used to say, are famous but little known. That he was an artist, that certain ware bears his name, that a legend has arisen about him, is the sum and substance of what the great majority of his countrymen know of him. M. Ernest Dupuy, in his 'Bernard Palissy' (Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.) tells his public of the man, the artist, the scholar, and the writer—for Palissy was a writer of uncommon power and much originality. But, above all, as M. Dupuy well remarks, Palissy was a high souled, noble-minded man, and for this reason, if for no other, his name will live in French annals. The study now given us is very full and detailed, a little too much so at times, but so conscientious and interesting that one easily forgives occasional over-developments. A glossary of words peculiar to Palissy and a brief bibliography add to the value of the work.

'Alfred de Vigny et la Poésie Politique,' by M. L. Dorison (Paris: Perrin & Cie.), is a careful study of the poet's beliefs as expressed mainly in that remarkable collection, 'Les Destinées.' M. Dorison has become very familiar with Vigny, and he has set out clearly the doctrines which "Le Mont des Oliviers," with its terrific closing stanza, and "La Maison du Berger" contain. The whole book is a particularly earnest effort to distinguish Vigny's aims and to prove that the poet sought to express a new symbol of life, perceiving that the old forms were worn out and that new generations, with new needs, required a new creed, a new object to be attained. This study of Vigny from the political and social point of view is indispensable to students of Romantic literature in France. It exhibits plainly the fact that the school possessed thinkers.

In 'Vie et Science' (Paris: Colin & Cie.) M. Henri Berr discusses, under the form of letters exchanged by an old philosopher of Strassburg and a Parisian student, the great questions which underlie daily life. Serious in tone, earnest of purpose, M. Berr succeeds in being interesting; and the frivolous, particularly the thoughtless, the careless, would profit by the perusal of this little book, which contains much food for reflection within a small compass.

'Savinien de Cyrano Bergerac' forms the subject of a volume signed G. Ant. Brun and published by the house just named. It is a thesis for the doctorate, crammed with information, attractive in parts but not very entertaining on the whole, though the subject lends itself to a brighter treatment than has been accorded to it. It is useful as a work of reference.

If we had any reason for being interested in Signor Angelo Conti, his book on Giorgione (Florence: Alinari Bros.) would be absorbing. He begins with a chapter on style, and ends with an epilogue on art and criticism, and, in between, discourses of the "Supreme Vision," the "Insufficiency of the Symbol," of Bach and Wagner, of Pater and Goethe, alluding once in a while to Giotto, Leonardo, Rembrandt, and even Giorgione. We thus learn that Signor Conti has "cultured" tastes and interests, but we do not see why he should entitle a book about himself 'Giorgione.' The illustrations, by the way, are good, and among them, almost as if by accident, are a few of genuine works by Giorgione.

A London bookseller named Tregaskis has two or three times taken many copies of the same book and sent them to as many bookbinders all over the world, and then exhibited the result in his own shop, the Caxton Head. The last book chosen was the Kelmscott Press edition of Mr. William Morris's 'King Florus and the Fair Jehane,' with initials and borders designed by the translator. Sixty-seven copies of the work are described in the catalogue as having been bound all over the world, in London and Paris and Venice, in Japan and Java, in Siam and Persia, in Montreal and New York and Memphis, Tenn. The binding designed and executed by Mr. Otto Zahn in Memphis, though a little stiff in outline, is thoroughly workmanlike. Excellent facsimiles of it and half-a-dozen other covers give value to the publisher's catalogue, to which is prefixed a futile introduction by Mr. Cyril Davenport, F.S.A.

The twenty-fourth annual report of the Lenox Library in this city enters into minute details concerning the chief acquisition of the year, the library of the late George Bancroft, which was let slip by Congress. It is of priceless value to the student of early American history. Purchases from the private library of the late George H. Moore also procured some rarities in the same line, and these and the Bancroft collection enabled the library to complete its series of the Jesuit *Relations* of New France in the original editions without a break (1632-1673). The Rev. Dr. Wendell Prime gave freely his remarkable Cervantes collection in 435 volumes. Some precious early printed books of the fifteenth century were acquired, one on vellum with miniature paintings over woodcuts, whose only known fellow is in the National Library at Paris.

The number of historical monographs now appearing on the subject is gratifying in direct proportion to the neglect of all our text-books, the newest like the older, to give anything like a consistent view of the cause of the revolution of 1860. The twelfth in the Publications of the Indiana Historical Society is a collection of "Slavery Petitions and Papers," showing the persistent attempt of a part of the inhabitants of the Territory of Indiana, from 1796 to 1807, to obtain of Congress a suspension of the Northwest Ordinance so far as it prohibited slavery. The compiler is Mr. Jacob Piatt Dunn, the historian of the State in the American Commonwealths series. Congress was more than once advised by its committees to accede, but there was a natural reluctance so to do in face of the approaching prohibition of the slave trade; and the anti-slavery settlers also put in a strong counter-petition. The humanitarian arguments advanced for admitting to the territory this "evil" forced upon the colonies by sordid England—as that it would improve the fare and treatment of the slave and tend to his gradual emancipation, while relieving the South of the dangers of insurrection—were as hollow as the economic, viz., that Indiana (in spite of Ohio's example) could not be developed by free labor. Our late President's grandfather, we are pained to observe, cut a prominent figure among the promoters of this movement for "cheap labor," in a region "where laborers cannot be procured to assist in cultivating the grounds under one dollar per day, exclusive of washing, lodging, and boarding; and where every kind of tradesmen are paid from a dollar and a half to two dollars per day." Many were tempted to "remove to the Spanish dominions, where slavery is permitted, and, consequently, the price of labor much lower."

Something new and instructive may be gleaned from a rather confused and limited performance, 'Slavery in Rhode Island, 1755-1776,' by William D. Johnston, whose paper issues from the Historical Seminary of Brown University. For instance, there was, in 1743, an act "for the more effectual punishment of negroes that shall attempt to commit rape on any white woman"; which implies that lynching was not the habit of the Rhode Island community. Mr. Johnston is quite as laudatory of the Quakers as the facts will warrant; but had his narrative come down to the period before the civil war, he would have had to record subserviency to Southern trade and Southern summer residents, and hostility to abolitionists, on the part of the Friends in Newport not at all distinguishable from like displays by the "world's people."

Much better is the 'History of Slavery in Connecticut,' by Bernard C. Steiner, Ph.D., one of the Johns Hopkins University Studies. There are many natural parallels between the customs and legislation on this subject of Rhode Island and Connecticut. Mr. Steiner has not exhausted the accessible sources, and he sometimes falls into error, as in regard to the Rhode Island Anti-Slavery Society of the eighteenth century, its date of formation and its membership. He has overlooked the original documents showing the genesis of Prudence Crandall's enterprise, and some of the larger consequences of the previous movement to found a colored manual-labor school at New Haven. Slavery was not finally abolished in Connecticut till 1848, but the persecution of Miss Crandall occurred in the period of gradual emancipation and at the time of the passage of a personal-liberty bill applicable to fugitive slaves. The *Amistad* trial is well related by Mr. Steiner.

A recent publication of the Weather Bureau in Washington is the summary of the international meteorological observations which appears as Bulletin A. The daily simultaneous observations of which this is a summary were taken in accordance with the plan formulated at the Meteorological Congress in Vienna in 1873. From 1875 to 1887 inclusive, these simultaneous observations were taken at all the signal stations in the United States, at nearly five hundred places in other portions of the world, and on nearly six hundred vessels in all seas, the whole aggregating upwards of 150,000 monthly reports, representing more than 5,000,000 daily observations. The preparation of the charts was begun by Major H. H. C. Dunwoody in 1886, and continued at intervals for five years. Nearly half of the charts were published in connection with the Chief Signal Officer's report in 1891. The work, including the preparation of the text, has been continued by Mr. E. B. Garriott, under the direction of Major Dunwoody, the whole being completed about a year ago, at which time it received a limited distribution. The plates number sixty-one, presenting the normal average barometer, temperature, winds, and changes in barometric pressure, various comparisons of these data, and storm frequency and storm-tracks. The work seems to have been well done in its details and the plates are well printed. The principal criticism which

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may be urged against it is that no weight has been given to the observations; series including few observations of poor quality, in regions where observers were scarce, being counted as of equal value with large series of excellent ones. With regard to the storm-tracks, a method based on the statistics of areas of a given number of degrees square was used, no allowance being made for the decrease of these squares in size with increasing latitude, the result of which has tended toward a deflection to the south of the storm-tracks. The value of the compilation for the use of the forecaster of weather might have been enhanced had a different principle been followed in the reduction.

The Marine Biological Laboratory at Wood's Hole, Mass., has just concluded its seventh summer session, the most successful in its history. The number of students and investigators in attendance was 133, representing 70 colleges and high schools. Courses of instruction in zoology and botany were offered, a new building for the accommodation of the students in the latter course having been erected. The important part played by the Laboratory in the development of the biological sciences in this country is evidenced by the fact that no less than 58 of those in attendance were carrying on research in zoölogy, botany, or physiology, and that several important investigations were completed during the summer. A number of the lectures delivered at the Laboratory during the session will, as in former years, be published in book form.

—In her interesting little book, 'The State and Its Children' (Methuen & Co.), Miss G. M. Tuckwell shows the great silent revolution which has been accomplished during the present century in the attitude of the State towards the children. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, saving the power of death only, it is not going too far to say that a father had absolute rights over his child. The course of legislation has greatly modified the old parental position. A child cannot now in England work even as a half-timer below the age of eleven, nor as a whole-timer until the age of thirteen, when he must possess a certain certificate of elementary education, the standard varying with the neighborhood; without this certificate he or she may work as a whole-timer at the age of fourteen. Whole time varies; in many factories it is ten and a half hours daily, except Saturday, exclusive of meals. In England, what is known as the "domestic workshop" is very common. Work is taken home by a parent to finish, and such work-places are excluded from the scope of the factory acts. Children, therefore, may be, and often are, set to work in them. Compulsory education rescues them from this fate to a certain extent, though the parent can evade the compulsion a good deal by irregular attendance. Parents can be punished by law for keeping their children in a filthy condition, for starving them, or beating to the extent of ill-usage.

—Miss Tuckwell shows further that much fewer children are sent to prison nowadays than in past times. Reformatories and industrial schools are built to receive youthful criminals and those charged with an offence punishable by imprisonment, but not previously convicted of felony. A young person may not be sent to a reformatory under the age of sixteen, and must, to the author's regret, have undergone more than ten days' imprisonment in jail. Children sent to industrial schools must be under twelve and guilty of some offence; or children up to the age of fourteen for whom the State must make provision. Such children must have parents undergoing a term of imprisonment, or be found unmanageable in the workhouse, or require to be removed from the company of thieves or prostitutes, or be truants in whose neighborhood exists no truant school. Miss Tuckwell finds that the parents of these young wards of the State are mostly worthless and egregiously selfish persons, allowed, by the immense respect England still retains for parental rights, to constantly interfere in arrangements made for the benefit of their children. They readily abandon them when helpless, and with audacity claim them as soon as they have become, or are on the point of becoming, wage-earners. English colonies, like England herself, have tried the barrack system for children, only to discard it because of its wretched results in physical depression and disease, in mental and moral apathy. Like several of our own States, South Australia will not permit parents to interfere with the welfare of children over whom the Government has been compelled to assume control. It is strange to find that English mine regulations permit a boy between twelve and thirteen to work for fifty-four hours per week in the mine. Working aboveground such boys would be allowed to work only half-time. Miss Tuckwell desires as practical reforms that no children under fifteen years of age should be permitted to work, and that the standard of exemption should be fixed by law and not left to the often unenlightened views of local authorities.

—In a recent number of the *Ephemeris Archæologike*, published by the Greek Archæological Society in Athens, Prof. John Williams White discusses the interesting question whether the so-called "Pelargikon" existed as a fortification in the time of Pericles and subsequently. In the early history of Athens, it undoubtedly defended the western and southern slopes below the Acropolis, and, together with the enclosing wall of the summit, constituted the chief security of the early settlement, in the same manner as the Acropolis of Mycenæ or of Tiryns. It continued to serve the same purpose, every one is agreed, as late as the sixth century A.C. Dr. Dörpfeld and others maintain that, after the invasion of Xerxes, it was repaired and retained its ancient uses from the time of Pericles even as late as the period of Herodes Atticus. Prof. White strongly combats this view, asserting that the Perlargikon was not restored, and that the Acropolis from the age of Pericles existed as a region consecrated to the worship of the deities, and as a secure place of deposit for treasure, but not as a fortified defence of the city. He examines in detail the opposing arguments and the passages from Thucydides, Lucian, and Aristophanes on which they are based; and, to our mind, makes good his position with perfect clearness and conclusiveness at every point, by a number of converging proofs. Finally, he points out the superfluousness of such a defence, after the "long walls" were built from the Peiræus, and the ugliness of a massive, rudely built enclosure obscuring to some extent the superlative beauty of the Parthenon and the Propylæa. As the modern Greek tongue is not a gift of grace to professors of ancient Greek, it may not be amiss to compliment Mr. White on the ease and lucidity with which he handles a language that has proved itself adequate to every demand of modern thought and science.

—The story of "La Nonne Alferez," which M. José-Maria de Heredia translates from its Spanish original (Paris: Lemerre; New York: Meyer Frères), has at first sight quite the look of the adventurous and picaresque romances of cloak and sword common in the seventeenth century. But it is not a romance at all. The nun lieutenant was a real personage of flesh and blood, and herself wrote these memoirs of her stormy life. The record of her baptism still exists. She is mentioned by many of her contemporaries; her portrait was drawn with pen and brush; the first and second parts of her 'Relación' were printed and reprinted during her lifetime, and she even attained the honors of the stage, as the heroine of the 'Monja Alferez' of D. Juan Perez de Montalvan, pupil of the great Lope. Two hundred years later, 1829, M. Joaquin Maria de Ferrer published, through the house of Jules Didot, the full text of the 'Historia' after the manuscript of the historian Muñoz, accompanying it with numerous notes and a wealth of "pièces justificatives" of all sorts and kinds. This book is now of very high rarity, though it appears that De Quincey must have had a copy of it, and have drawn from it his story of the 'Spanish Military Nun.' De Quincey's well-known book gives an account of the facts of the life of Caterina de Erauso sufficiently full to make it unnecessary to go into any details here. But, compared with his original, his book is dull indeed. His story creeps, leaden-footed, where Caterina's own relation flies. She used her pen with the same directness that she used her dagger, and her sentences go as straight as her pistol-shots. M. de Heredia has done well in rescuing from the thickening shadows of oblivion such a vivid and alert piece of writing as this is.

—Baldassare Castiglione's 'Cortegiano,' far from being a quaint and merely curious treatise on sixteenth-century etiquette, introduces us to a group of fascinating people discussing many of those questions of polite ethics, urbanity, and culture that have occupied our own eighteenth-century essayists. Castiglione should be regarded as the precursor of Addison, Steele, and Swift, more even than of Montaigne, for the great charm of the 'Cortegiano' is its note of personality, its touching on the various foibles and prejudices of the interlocutors. The *dramatis personæ* are always kept in character, so that the discussions are more like certain "psychological" novels of to-day than like the ordinary Socratic dialogue. But hitherto only the specialist had sufficient acquaintance with the characters as they were in life to appreciate the force, tact, and humor of the author's presentation. The ordinary reader was repelled from the book by the quantity of names and things utterly unknown to him. Even when his curiosity was roused, he could not easily satisfy it, because, in the lack of all those aids in the shape of innumerable dictionaries that the student of the ancients has, the beginner in Renaissance studies finds himself helpless the moment he leaves the broad highway hedged with glittering generalities. A well-annotated edition of the 'Cortegiano' was, therefore, much wanted, and nothing could satisfy the want better than that of Signor Vittorio Cian, published a few months ago at Florence by G. C. Sansoni. Signor Cian is a well-known specialist on the subject of Castiglione, an edition of whose unpublished letters he is now preparing. He has prefixed to the text a biographical dictionary of all the interlocutors. The notes are copious, and although many are of a philological nature, most are explanatory and interpretative, no allusion being left unnoticed, no point not cleared up. To the be-

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ginner Signor Cian's 'Cortegiano' is indispensable; to others it makes a delightful classic many times more delightful.

—Another but little less recent book, which plunges the reader into the very midst of the Urbino "Salon," is 'Mantova ed Urbino, Isabella d'Este ed Elisabetta Gonzaga nelle relazioni famigliari e nelle vicende politiche,' by those ripe and cultured scholars, Alessandro Luzio and Rodolfo Renier (Turin: L. Roux). A book of this kind, in which people of the Renaissance are made to describe themselves, to reveal their passions, interests, and foibles, to explain their relations to one another—a book in which the author never enters except to introduce a useful date or an illuminating note—is an untold relief after the cartloads of rubbish that have appeared in recent years about the Renaissance in the abstract, written frequently by people with a bare smattering of Italian and next to no acquaintance with Italy. The personality that stands out clearest in this model work is that of Isabella d'Este, the brilliant Marchioness of Mantua. She anticipates not only the French *marquise* of the last century, but even more our American great ladies. We see her devoted to horseback riding as well as to diplomacy. A new hair wash or receipt for the complexion interests her no more than a fresh sonnet or the last good story. She was as devoted to travel as many of our countrywomen, and, like some of them, she seemed happier and more herself without her husband. A winter in Rome to her was like a winter in Paris in our days, and in the Rome of Leo X. Isabella d'Este found no lack of excitement and amusement, and of course she received the homage of all the wits and men of fashion. Art was perhaps the greatest of her passions. She was among the first to appreciate Michelangelo. Mantegna, the Bellini, Perugino, Costa, and Titian painted pictures for her cabinet, and it is due to her influence that Mantua became what it did, the model of a European court—one that Louis XIV. could not help imitating to the minutest details.

THE END OF EMIN PASHA.

Mit Emin Pascha ins Herz von Afrika: Ein Reisebericht mit Beiträgen von Dr. Emin Pascha, in seinem Auftrage geschildert von Dr. Franz Stuhlmann. Im amtlichen Auftrage der Kolonial-Abtheilung des Auswärtigen Amtes herausgegeben. Karten, Portraits, etc. Berlin: D. Reimer. 1894. 8vo, pp. xxi, 901.

The last expedition of Emin Pasha was rarely fortunate in its historian. An unusual combination of qualities, thorough scientific training, literary skill, keen powers of observation, and a kindly interest in everything human, has enabled Dr. Franz Stuhlmann to write one of the best books on Africa of which we have any knowledge. Few travellers have pictured more vividly than he the incidents of the journey, the distinctive characteristics of the regions traversed. None have surpassed him in the scrupulous fidelity with which he has described the various customs, habits of life, appearance, etc., of each native tribe which he encountered. It is this painstaking and picturesque collection of ethnographic facts about a race which is fast disappearing or transforming before the inrush of a new civilization—not the importance of the expedition, for that accomplished little or nothing worthy of note and ended in disaster—which gives the work its great value. The connection of Emin Pasha with the expedition adds, of course, vastly to the interest of the account, though scarcely anything to its intrinsic worth. The picture which the author draws of this ill-fated man is, the reader feels, to the life. Whether it will add to his reputation as a wise organizer and leader is a matter of grave doubt. Dr. Stuhlmann, on the other hand, has shown himself to be an admirable traveller and well fitted to govern the natives. The only weakness which we have noted is an undue, though not unnatural, prejudice against the English, which is frequently manifested. The references to Stanley—mostly fragments of Emin's conversation—are amusing, though it should be added that there are only generous words of praise, both from the author and from Emin as well, for Stanley's geographical work. This is the more noteworthy as in Germany they are accustomed to "shrug their shoulders" over it.

The aim of the expedition which, a thousand strong, left Bagamoyo, opposite Zanzibar, on April 26, 1890, was in general terms to strengthen and extend the power of Germany within its sphere of influence. Emin was the leader, and Dr. Stuhlmann, who had been for two years in Africa studying its zoölogy, was taken on to aid in the scientific work. At Mpwapwa they met the notorious Dr. Carl Peters returning from his raid through Masailand and Uganda. He strongly advised Emin to make all possible haste to Lake Victoria in order "to secure the neutrality of Uganda and the Equatorial Province," or, in other words, to thwart the supposed designs of England in these regions. This advice was followed, as well as Dr. Peters's method of treating hostile natives. To punish attacks upon the expedition, whether provoked or unprovoked does not appear, Emin burned villages—for one offence nineteen—killing and wounding the inhabitants and looting their cattle. In this way the Germans too frequently assert their authority in their African territory, with the natural result that it is being turned into a wilderness. On reaching the lake, Dr. Stuhlmann was sent to destroy the station of an Arab slave-trader—a more laudable act, though one which Capt. Lugard believes to have led to Emin's murder two years later. After the founding of the station of Bukoba on the west shore, the doctor went to Uganda, ostensibly to buy boats, but in reality to watch the course of events with the intent of gaining some advantage for Germany. This can hardly be regarded in any other light than a discourteous act to the English, whose agent, Capt. Lugard, was at that moment endeavoring to come to an understanding with the king and his chiefs. The German's presence must have made his task more difficult, as during these negotiations Mwanga actually offered to place himself under German protection and to hoist the German flag. Though this offer was declined, blood-brotherhood was made between the king and Emin's representative, who soon after returned to Bukoba. Advantage is taken of this episode to give an interesting account of Uganda, its people and their history.

Disappointed in his hopes of extending German influence in this direction through the Anglo-German agreement giving the sole control of Uganda to the former power, the Pasha now turned his whole attention to his former province, and first to his Sudanese, who were still where Stanley and he had left them two years before on the western shore of Lake Albert. "He hoped, if he could reach his people, to join forces with them, in order, if circumstances permitted, with their aid to make his way through Monbuttu westward, and, if possible, to take possession of the Hinterland of the Cameroons." In carrying out this plan, as indeed in almost all his proceedings after leaving Mpwapwa, though Dr. Stuhlmann is not perfectly clear on this point, Emin did not have the sanction or approval of the Government, nor of his companion, who regarded this plan as "magnificent" but impracticable. Stuhlmann's advice was to explore the little-known region between Lakes Tanganyika and Victoria, the original object of the expedition. But Emin obstinately refused to listen to him, and they started, though with greatly reduced numbers, for Lake Albert. The route was very nearly the same that Emin had travelled before with Stanley. On the way Dr. Stuhlmann made an unsuccessful attempt to climb Mount Ruwenzori, not being able to reach the snow-line. On July 21, 1891, the lake was reached, and negotiations with Selim Bey, the commander of the Sudanese, began at once. They were unsuccessful, though a considerable number of Selim's people, mostly men incapable of bearing either arms or burdens, with their families, joined the Pasha. After three weeks' delay they started again, the expedition now consisting of 320 persons, 96 of whom were women and 39 children. It was the height of folly with such a force, and lacking ammunition, food, and supplies, to attempt to cross the forest in which Stanley's perfectly equipped expedition had nearly perished. It is hard to acquit Dr. Stuhlmann of great blame in not compelling Emin to give up his mad project. He says that he remonstrated with him, and Emin's only answer was the permission to go back if he chose. The Pasha himself was determined to press forward "into uncertainty and danger, only in order to be useful to his fatherland, and to show the world that he also alone, without Stanley's help, could lead an expedition." In these naïve words of the author we find the ruling motive of Emin's conduct—intense jealousy of his rescuer. For this he was willing to sacrifice what was probably of more value to him than his life—the opportunity to give to the world the results of his scientific labors, so zealously and successfully pursued through many years.

The next three months were spent in vain efforts to push through the forest, first to the west and then to the north, but Emin was continually baffled by the feebleness of his force and the want of food and guides. The story of these last days is perhaps the most pitiful in all the annals of African travel. Emin had become nearly blind, and, through sickness and privation, reduced almost to helplessness. Yet he struggled on with a persistence, partly heroic, partly despairing, unwilling to acknowledge defeat, though his enemies were not men, but disease, hunger, and the forest. At length he was compelled to return to his former camp by the lake, where, to add to his misfortunes, smallpox broke out among his people. After vainly endeavoring to stamp it out, he separated the well from the sick, and ordered Dr. Stuhlmann to lead the former back to the German station on Lake Victoria, promising speedily to follow him. On the 10th of December, 1891, they parted, Emin's last words being, "We will hope to meet again in a month! If, prevented by force, I should not come, then think of my child!" It was with great reluctance that Dr. Stuhlmann left his leader under such circumstances. "Many times during those wearisome days," he writes, "the thought darted into my head to seize the command of the

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expedition and to carry him forcibly to the coast. But, apart from all other scruples, I should have had to risk his doing himself an injury." The rest of the melancholy story is soon told. Three months later letters—the last dated January 12, 1892—were received from Emin at Bukoba. From these and the report of the bearer, it appeared that, though the Pasha's health had improved, the smallpox had spread to the natives, many of whom had died and the rest had fled, so that it was impossible for him to march. There were with him at this time twenty-two men, "besides many women and children." Again the closing words were a greeting to his little daughter Ferida. His diary, which the Belgians recovered from the Arabs, records that he remained in this camp until March 9, when he left in company with a party of Manyema slave-hunters who were returning to their home on the Congo. Dr. Stuhlmann thinks that he was compelled to take this course, starvation being the alternative. He safely crossed the great forest in a southwesterly direction, and was within a few days' march of the river when he was murdered, on October 20, by the leader of the band. The remainder of the expedition, it may be said here, under the lead of his companion, reached the coast in July without any noteworthy incident.

In this work Emin Pasha is invariably treated with the deference due to a superior officer and a distinguished man of science. Possibly more than justice is done to his powers as a leader, his patience and tact in dealing with the natives, but not too much to his tireless zeal in the pursuit of knowledge, his forgetfulness of self in the thoughtful care for his companions, his far-reaching views and ambitious aims. At the same time the picture is not one-sided. It is evident that Emin was capricious, irritable, not always sincere, jealous and invincibly obstinate in attempting to carry out even hopeless plans when once he had formed them. It was to this trait mainly that the final catastrophe was due. The general impression left, however, is of a man of more than ordinary interest and one peculiarly adapted to the rôle of an African explorer. In respect to the charge made against Emin that he turned Mohammedan, Dr. Stuhlmann writes: "He did, it is true, in his province outwardly observe the Mohammedan customs, but at heart he remained a good Protestant. When during our travels our tents stood close together, I could hear frequently in the evening how, before he retired, he prayed for a long time in the Protestant way."

Three of the chapters of this work were written from his dictation—accounts of the events in his province after his departure and of the negotiations with the Sudanese, and a valuable description of the A-lur, a negro tribe dwelling on the upper Nile. The latter is a good specimen of the immense stores of information which he had gathered, much of which probably perished with him. In the similar descriptions of the different tribes which were encountered by the expedition, and which form a considerable part of this volume (the other scientific results are to be published separately), Dr. Stuhlmann shows how much he has profited by his leader's instructions and example. They are models of simplicity and of careful detail, while the numerous illustrations of dwellings, tribal markings, weapons, and household utensils render them unusually intelligible. The chapter on the Pygmies, of whom the expedition saw a considerable number, at one place finding a settlement of between one and two hundred huts, is a monograph of peculiar interest and value. From numerous measurements our author found their height varied from 1.24 metres to 1.50 metres, though Emin held that all above 1.40 metres were of a mixed race. That they are not misshapen, the admirable photographs of the two women who joined the expedition clearly prove, nor do they show less intelligence than the average negro, though they have no knowledge of making fire by stick-rubbing. A down-like hair, two to three millimetres long, which looks in the distance like silk, covered the whole body, which was without ornament. Their language, when talking together, was like the twittering of birds. Stuhlmann saw no evidences of the cannibalism with which some writers have charged them, and is inclined to believe that they are the autochthons of Africa and of the same race with the Bushmen.

Among the negroes whom Dr. Stuhlmann describes, there is one, familiar to the readers of Stanley's latest books, who stands out pre-eminent, Uledi, the Zanzibari porter. He accompanied the great explorer in his last two expeditions across the continent, during which, according to Stanley, "on thirteen occasions he saved human life," and "at the call of duty he was ever the foremost." Of this expedition he was also the mainstay, the one always to be relied upon in times of difficulty and danger. Tactful and kindly in dealing with his fellows, ignorant of fear, "the faithful Uledi," as Stanley calls him, "the admirable (*trefflich*)" in Dr. Stuhlmann's parting term, is probably the very flower of his race.

Mention has already been made of the numerous illustrations by which the value of this work is greatly enhanced. Among them are copies of photographs of scenery and the vegetation, especially of the forest, and excellent portraits of the leaders and some of the more noted natives, as Uledi and the murderer of the Pasha. There are also two admirable maps, one showing the route, the other, ethnographical, showing not only the present dwelling-places of the various races, but their lines of migration, with insets indicating the geology, the comparative density of population, and the agriculture of eastern equatorial Africa. In every respect of excellence in typography and general make-up, this splendid volume is an honor to the German Colonial Government which authorized and aided in its publication. Their policy of giving to the world in such a perfect form the results of the labors of their officials is one which it would be well for England more frequently to imitate.

Cock Lane and Common Sense. By Andrew Lang. Longmans, Green & Co. 1894. xvi, 357 pp., 8vo.

UNDER "Cock Lane" in this title Mr. Lang refers to what are ordinarily termed "spiritualistic manifestations," ghosts, telepathy, *et id omne genus;* and under "common sense" he seems to include everything ranging from flippant scepticism to philosophical caution in accepting results which appear to violate recognized physical laws. In the preface he avows that he is not conscious of any bias in favor of common sense—a statement which is fully upheld by the subsequent text. The innocent reader, misled by the ostensible seriousness of the preface, will be apt to suppose that the collection of clever essays which follows is intended to be taken seriously. Occasionally it would seem as if Mr. Lang was sufficiently carried away by his subject to be momentarily serious in spite of the adroitly veiled sarcasm which characterizes the bulk of the book, and which soon convinces the careful reader that the author is quietly laughing in his sleeve at the absurdities which he chronicles and discusses.

The book is neither an advocate of the reality of the marvellous nor a consolation for the sceptic. Scientific treatment is explicitly disavowed at the outset, with the implication that, as an amateur, the author's opinion on such points is "of less than no value." But he does not hesitate to characterize modern spiritualism as "for the most part an organized and fraudulent copy of the old popular phenomena, with a few cheap and vulgar variations on the theme." On the other hand, he frequently pauses to deprecate the unwillingness of people who have "a bias in favor of common sense" to spend their time investigating matters which, in their nature, are incapable of exact analysis, and of which the outcome would leave both parties thinking as before. Absolutely destitute of any scientific spirit, the book has spirits of other sorts in abundance whose pranks are amusingly detailed. After a lengthy introduction follow chapters on Savage and on Ancient Spiritualism; Comparative Psychical Research; Haunted Houses; Cock Lane; Apparitions, Ghosts, and Hallucinations; Crystal Gazing; Second Sight; Ghosts before the Law; A Modern Trial for Witchcraft; Presbyterian Ghost Hunters; The Logic of Table-turning; and the Ghost Theory of the Origin of Religions. Lovers of the marvellous, which includes practically all mankind, will find here plenty of it, not obtrusively discredited. The anthropologist may gather items for his studies, the sceptic may enjoy the evidences of the weakness of the human intellect and the perennial credulity of the multitude; he alone who seeks for the author's conclusions will be disappointed. When all is said and done, like the balls of the Indian juggler, behold! they have vanished into the blue above.

There is no index, which is to be regretted, for the text is a mine of disconnected facts difficult to refer to. Four of the essays in the main have been previously printed, but have been recast and extended for the present volume.

Romantic Professions, and Other Papers. By W. P. James. Macmillan & Co.

MR. JAMES'S volume assures us that speculation on unconsidered trifles is not a wholly idle exercise and that it is even a source of pleasure and profit, if only the trifles be judiciously selected. Almost every one has noticed the limitations of profession and occupation prescribed for the hero of romance; the fitness or unfitness between names and characters in novels; the insistence on youth as a requisite for exciting romantic interest; but few have stopped to inquire into the justice of accepted premises, or to look about for a possible philosophical basis. Mr. James does both, in a desultory fashion, without much attention to sequence of ideas and with no pretension to subtlety, yet with enough originality and fulness of illustrative reference to give his apparently frivolous themes an air of considerable gravity and importance. Here and there he ventures a declaration of literary faith, and a collocation of his stray dicta makes a wholesome creed, perfectly intelligible to simple souls wandering benighted in the fog of professional declamation about the meaning and mystery and mission of art. In the paper entitled "The Nemesis of Sentimentalism,"

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which is really a criticism of Flaubert's 'Mme. Bovary,' and, with the exception of Mr. Henry James's, the best that we know in English, he takes occasion to say, apropos of Flaubert's careful observation of life:

"Art, ideal as it necessarily is, cannot do without observation, but its kingdom cometh not with observation alone. It penetrates to the spirit and reveals the significance of the things observed. 'Mme. Bovary' is art by its intensity of vision, by its inevitableness, by its style."

Then, in reference to a wholly irrelevant incident in 'Anna Karénina,' much commended by Matthew Arnold as a piece of life itself, Mr. James utters what ought to be a self-evident proposition, but unfortunately is not:

"Between life and a book there must always remain a great gulf fixed. To merely copy in art the apparently meaningless, anomalous, or unintelligible things of life, on the plea that such things do actually exist, is to mistake the whole aim and scope of art."

Equally mistaken is literal transcription of the dulness and humdrum of life, and we could wish that our host of aspiring realistic novelists would take to heart Mr. James's remarks thereon. His occasional thrusts at anatomy and physiology in fiction are also creditable to his feeling for art and his common sense. On the unimportance of accuracy in historical novels when compared with interesting story and dramatic passion (that is, in behalf of Scott and Dumas), he speaks with a courage that nowadays is quite foolhardy, and we share his melancholy foreseeing of the time when "we shall all eat of the tree of knowledge, and be as professors of history, knowing fact from fancy."

For form and clever tossing of thought, the last paper, "The Great Work," is the best. Mr. James is demonstrating that no urging from without ever makes a man produce a *magnum opus*, but, on the contrary, frequently hinders him from doing the good work easily within his scope. As a final instance he cites 'Amiel' in a passage worth quoting because it is spoken in flagrant contempt of many outpourings of refined literary sentiment:

"The typical martyr was the unhappy Amiel. Had not his friends insisted upon his regarding himself as a genius, he might have lived a prosperous life as a Swiss gentleman and father of a family, doing his duty in that state of life in which it had pleased God to call him as a lecturer to ladies. But once he got into his head that he was a genius from whom great things were expected, his life thenceforth was the life of the impotent man longing, yet powerless, to struggle down into the troubled waters of literary production into which others continually plunged before his eyes. So he maundered into a *journal intime*. When people talk of the slavery of journalism, at least let it be confessed that it is better to be the slave of any respectable public journal than the slave of a *journal intime*."

This is not all Gospel truth, but may well give the undiscriminating adorers of Amiel pause.

Studies in Oriental Social Life, and Gleams from the East on the Sacred Page. By H. Clay Trumbull. Philadelphia: John D. Wattles & Co. 1894.

In reading Mr. Trumbull's studies in Oriental life we are reminded of restorers of antiques at Rome. Some of these artists are well-nigh creators or resurrectionists. Give them a well-preserved Roman nose, and, under their manipulation, it will swell up into the fair proportions of a classic bust or even statue. Some years before the British occupation of Egypt in 1881, Mr. Trumbull spent a week in Jerusalem, and a little time north of that city, with perhaps a month in journeying thither from Alexandria by way of Mount Sinai. These weeks in sacred lands have given birth at last to an octavo almost too ponderous to be accepted as mailable matter. The genesis and exodus of the work are noteworthy.

Certain phases of life as Mr. Trumbull saw them on his brief tour gave direction to his after reading, both sacred and secular. Much of the Bible seemed to him either illustrated by his observations in the transient pilgrimage or illustrative of them. More than seven hundred texts of this sort, scattered through fifty-two books, are referred to in his text, and are marshalled in an index of fifteen columns. Then, at least fifty-two other volumes are cited as authorities, though often, as it happens, for proving what nobody disputes, or what nobody cares to see proved. Readers will feel that the secret of being dull is to say everything, and that twice.

One of Mr. Trumbull's chapters is "Hospitality in the East." The only provocation for this dissertation of seventy pages was a cup of coffee given him near Jezreel by a sheikh whose "house of hair" he passed by, and for which no payment, as he supposed, would have been accepted. In most cases of this sort, while chiefs would disdain personal remuneration as Elijah did the silver of Naaman, their underling Gehazis are ready to grasp, or even demand, such returns; and, so far from being cursed, like Gehazi, find their masters eager for a share of their gains. In the outset Mr. Trumbull declared that "in the East hospitality has a preëminence in its obligations and in its significance not recognized to the same extent elsewhere in the world." But the latter end of his treatise on hospitality forgets its beginning. The virtue at first claimed as the exclusive prerogative of Orientals shows itself as Occidental also. It appears "in its highest form—as superior to the demands of personal vengeance or of religious prejudices—in the traditions of the Irish people" (p. 122), and in Tripoli (p. 118). More than this; besides that the duty of hospitality was a religious obligation among the Romans, to whom we owe the word itself, we are told that "its claims among the American Indians are recognized in much the same manner as among the Orientals" (p. 138). Mr. Trumbull's philosophy would make hospitality a matter of longitude; his facts show that it marks a certain stage of culture, or, according to his quotation from Bruce, "that it is the virtue of barbarians, who are hospitable in the ratio that they are barbarous," etc. The sheikh who prepared coffee for Mr. Trumbull, having come from beyond Jordan, had probably never before encountered a Yankee party, and was impelled by a natural curiosity to make the most of the interview. His cordiality seemed the greater to Mr. Trumbull, who was ready to believe his sentimental ideal of hospitality realized. But one wonders how such an ideal could have survived certain shocks to which it was subjected. Thus, our traveller had a written contract with his dragoman in which it was agreed that a certain sum should pay all expenses, including every variety of gratuity to everybody. But we find the dragoman, who was wealthy, begging a baksheesh, and that in the shape of Mr. Trumbull's valise. When promised that such a gift should be sent him from America, the beggar, through a go-between, made it known that he would much prefer the value of the valise in hard cash at once. When this sum was paid him, he still begged that an additional baksheesh might be sent him from America. What spirit of hospitality can coexist with such meanness? A hundred Oriental wayfarers have been assailed by extortioners importunate for more than they had agreed to receive, where a single one has tasted a hospitality amounting to so much as a cigar—a gift not unknown from the entirest stranger among Occidentals. *Experto crede Roberto.*

Mr. Trumbull gives us a taste of his quality as a Biblical critic in his remarks on the spoiling of the Egyptians by the Israelites when those slaves left their masters. In his judgment the gold and silver thus obtained (which sufficed, among other uses, for casting the golden calf, and also adorning the Tabernacle till it might be termed a golden house) should be deemed analogous to the tips that are paid to Pullman porters, or the baksheesh which he paid his Oriental servitors—"tokens of friendship and proofs of faithful service." Mr. Trumbull tells us that during our great war he was a prisoner at the South, and he may himself have known Old Shady, who sings, "Good-bye, Massa Davis, good-bye, Massa Stevens, 'scuse dis nigger for takin' his leavins'"; but did he ever hear of a dusky runaway who added insult to injury by appealing to his master to defray the expenses of his journey North? Throughout, our author, while his faith in miracles is strong, is full of theories which make them appear superfluous, and which seem more improbable than the miracles themselves. His make of mind appears to be that of those post-Homeric poets who on the one hand tell us that Achilles, by being dipped in the Styx, became invulnerable, and on the other never let him show himself on the battle-field till he is clad all over in armor of proof.

Congregationalists in America: A Popular History of their Origin, Belief, Polity, Growth, and Work. By Rev. Albert E. Dunning, D.D. Special Chapters by Rev. Joseph E. Roy, D.D., on Congregational Work and Progress in the West and Northwest; Rev. Francis E. Clark, D.D., on Congregationalists and their Young People; Rev. Howard A. Bridgman, on Congregational Literature; and Rev. Alonzo H. Quint, D.D., on Ecclesiastical Councils. Introductions by Rev. Richard S. Storrs, D.D., LL.D., and Major-General Oliver O. Howard, LL.D. New York: J. A. Hill & Co. [1894.] Pp. 552.

This lengthy title indicates the character of the volume under review. It is designed to present the story of the religious body of which it treats to the general reading public, and especially to the members of the denomination from which it takes its title, rather than to students of New England history. In furtherance of this popular intent it has aimed to secure the weight of names honored for one cause or another in the communion to which it distinctly appeals, by its double introductions and supplementary chapters; but the essential portion of the volume is the work of the Rev. A. E. Dunning, editor of the Boston *Congregationalist*. In his chapters the principal writer has told the story of American Congregationalism in a pleasant way that will make the work not without value to the average intelligent reader for whom it is designed; and as Dr. Dunning seems more at home as he approaches his own age, his chapters grow in strength and worth as the volume advances.

It could be wished, however, in spite of the principal author's declaration that he has "not allowed" himself "to take the space or to burden the pages with references in detail to authori-

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ties," that he had made greater acknowledgment than a mere mention of their names and works in a "List of Authorities" of his indebtedness to other writers on New England and Congregational history whose ideas and language he has liberally reproduced. Nor is the work without evidence of careless writing and proof-reading, as illustrated, for instance, in the citation of a 'History of Connecticut' by "J. Hammond Trumbull" (instead of Benjamin Trumbull) in the "List of Authorities"; in the statement that the much-discussed ballot at the choice of Higginson and Skelton at Salem in 1629 was a "printed ballot" (p. 104); the implication (p. 156) that the New Haven Church and court were formed in 1638 instead of 1639; the assignment of Gilbert Tennent's farewell sermon at Boston to 1841, and of the opening of Andover Seminary to 1708 (pp. 251, 387, doubtless slips of the proof-reader); the declaration that "the first treatise against Trinitarian doctrines written by an American was published" in 1803 (p. 290); the transfer of the name of the Baptist divine, George Dana Boardman, to the *emeritus* theological professor of Chicago Seminary, George Nye Boardman (p. 389); or the representation that Horace Bushnell was an occupant of "the pulpit of the First Church, Hartford, Conn." (p. 395)—a church that always opposed Bushnell during his active ministry.

More important, but none the less open to serious criticism, are the statements that the "Great Awakening" with which the names of Whitefield and Edwards are associated, "may almost be said to have created in this country those nobler sentiments of humanity, one fruit of which, after a century, was the overthrow of slavery" (p. 261); and that "a candid study of the early history of New England can lead to no other conclusion than this, that the most powerful motive in originating the war of independence was a religious motive" (p. 265). It could also be wished that an apparent desire to avoid controverted problems had not led Dr. Dunning to speak with uncertain voice on such questions as the circumstances of the formation of the Salem church, the extent of the indebtedness of the New England Puritans to the Pilgrims for their ecclesiastical polity, or the witchcraft excitement, and also designedly to omit any consideration of that which has been most interesting in the modern history of Congregationalism—the debates which have turmoiled the sessions of the "American Board" and perplexed the authorities of Andover Seminary.

A System of Legal Medicine. By Allan McLane Hamilton, M.D., and Lawrence Godkin. Illustrated. Volume I., pp. 657. New York: E. B. Treat. 1894.

Law touches the profession of physic in almost every phase, so that the individual, from the rôle of murderer or victim to the other end of the scale as the client of an insurance company, falls within the range of the newer science known as legal medicine. As law has the organized machinery of society at its disposal, and as medicine is chiefly occupied with individuals in their personal relations, the former moulds the action of the latter when they come together, except on the rare occasions when the facts of the laboratory withstand the theories of the bench. But, after all, the bench usually wins, and it is less a conflict than a rivalry of methods in attaining the truth. The literature of medical jurisprudence is voluminous. The most valuable part is within the present century, and the bulk of it is of Continental origin. The earlier details are more curious than edifying, for the law no longer takes cognizance of witches, and the science of the past becomes obsolete under the advance of exact methods of investigation. For the purposes of our own people the bearing of the principles of medicine and of natural science upon the law, and especially upon statute law, or, more correctly, the coloring that the law applies to them, must be of British and American origin. The first modern work of importance was the 'Questiones Medico-legales' of Zacchia (1621), followed by more than a score of German works, beginning with Alberti Halle (1739) in the next, and by twice as many in the nineteenth century. The French gave out two dozen, the European peninsulas as many more, and the outlying countries another dozen. These figures refer only to works of importance in this century. The leaders on the Continent were Louis, Orfila, Casper, and Tardieu. Ogston, Tidy, Guy, Christison, and Taylor were the British authors; the 'Manual' of the latter running for forty years from 1844 through numerous editions, and being very popular with American students. At home, Beck, Reese, and Wharton, and Stillé in the general subject, and the unrivalled Wormley in the micro-chemistry of poisons, have held the field. Each of these books was the product of one or, at the most, of two minds. For those who read Japanese, 'Saiban Igaku Teiko' (Tokio, 1822) is interesting as showing the relations of the two sciences in the Empire of the Rising Sun while it was yet free from Western, except Dutch, influence.

The 'System' under review is the result of collaboration, often employed in general medicine, but not previously in this specialty, and the coworkers are of both professions. Naturally, perhaps necessarily, some of the topics overlap. The material presented is so enormous that it is impossible to discuss it in detail. Of the essays proper, that on the "Identity of the Living" is probably the least satisfactory. The long essays on death and on homicide and wounds by Dr. Francis A. Harris and Dr. Lewis Balch are the most important in connection with the ordinary demands of a coroner and of a criminal jury; and in the former of these the method of reconstructing an unknown victim from certain dismembered fragments is curious and useful. Some of the other essays are of great value, notably that by Prof. Babcock on "Blood and Other Stains." We are glad to see it laid down that the most that can be established in relation to the measurement of blood corpuscles is that the stains are of mammalian blood, the diameters are consistent with human blood, and that they may be other blood. Prof. Vaughan's experiments demolishing the trustworthiness of Dragendorff's method for the determination of morphia in the liver and other organs are here published for the first time (we believe) in a text-book. The color tests for morphine, in the absence of its crystals, it appears, cannot be depended upon in the presence of putrefactive indol where tissue decomposing in the absence of oxygen is examined. Vaughan has also independently discovered the possible escape of arsenic as gas, an observation made long ago by Hünefeld, but not practically developed.

Here and there reference is made to left-handedness in the probable assailant; but in the stress properly laid upon careful observation of the body and of the other inanimate surroundings, this particular indication might be more emphasized. Because so few people are left-handed, a very good clue is afforded when a sinistral sign is discovered. It once occurred to the writer to express the opinion that a fatal blow over the eye had been made by a moderately obtuse weapon of small size probably wielded by a left-handed man. Subsequently it appeared that the man who had the best opportunity to offer the violence was left-handed, and was in the habit of carrying his pistol by the barrel, and of making back-handed blows with it. There was little moral doubt that the murder was committed by this man striking the other a lateral blow with the hammer of his pistol as he walked with him on his right. The medico-legal aspects of self-cocking pistols, by the way, are overlooked. A man's body was found lying on the back in bed with a pistol wound behind the right ear, and a self-cocking revolver, with two chambers exploded, firmly grasped in the right hand, which was extended along the right thigh. The second bullet was found in the ceiling a trifle to the front of a vertical line from the centre of the body. It was a question whether the bullet in the ceiling was a trial shot, or whether it was due to pressure on the trigger as the arm was extended automatically. It probably was the latter, but had a second person been in the line of fire it might be thought that there was murder as well as suicide. Numerous variations of this complication are possible.

Dr. Harris believes that cadaveric spasm occurs, and cites Ogston as having witnessed eleven cases. There is no question as to its occurrence, and death by gunshot is its most common antecedent. Doubtless every active campaign furnishes illustrations. Near Bristoe Station, Hooker drove back Stonewall Jackson August 26, 1862, in a sharp fight (that plays no part in Jackson's invariable victories), and the next day in a small grove a number of Confederate riflemen were still to be seen in the picturesque attitudes of firing in different postures as death overtook them. Groups of such subjects are not common, but they have occurred.

The short but interesting essay of the legal editor cites with approval the Leeds method of doing away with the scandal of medical experts appearing for or against a prisoner. By it all the medical witnesses freely confer with each other before the trial; and thus the whole truth comes out, usually without cross-examination and always without the suspicion of prejudice. As he properly remarks, this method requires a high degree of intelligence and honor in the witnesses themselves, but it certainly is an attainable standard.

In one or two of the articles, notably by members of the bar, there is a levity of style hardly compatible with so serious a subject; and among the medical writers the somewhat common error of the factitious *calvarium* (which also has crept without authority into a standard dictionary) for *calvaria* (fem. sing.) should have been corrected by the editor, if not by the proof-reader.

This great volume might be the basis of almost endless comment, but there are limits we may not pass, and then we are deprived of the assistance of an index, which will probably be supplied in the second volume, though, where the bulk is so great, we think a separate index should have been furnished, even if it had to be repeated in the general.

The Lover's Lexicon. By Frederick Greenwood. Macmillan & Co.

No benefactors of the human race have commanded so little love as the makers of diction-

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aries. In the present, when a dictionary represents the work of scores of scholars, they, of course, cannot be loved any more than another soulless corporation; but in the past, who among us ever cast a crumb of affection to Johnson, or Larousse, or Noah Webster, because of their years of patient toil in our behalf? When we consider the dreadful doubts that have been set at rest, the angry passions that have been soothed, the apparently interminable discussions that have been cut short by recourse to dictionaries, such indifference to their makers is an appalling example of thankless ingratitude. The only exception to this universal heartlessness we can think of is found in Boston, where Worcester occasionally excites a sentiment akin to worship when he happens to give a Bostonian pronunciation without the fatal abbreviation *Amer.* If we have not emphasized the rarity of a dictionary which compels love for the author, the foregoing remarks may be taken as a wanton slander on our kind, and the connection with 'The Lover's Lexicon' will be completely missed. The qualities that make us love any man through his book are tenderness, generosity, and kindly humor, and the constant though not obtrusive presence of that wisdom which is born partly of experience, but more largely of intuitive perception of the secrets of the heart. Such gracious presences flit about and fill the pages of 'The Lover's Lexicon,' and it is the *embarras de richesses* only which prevents our making the assertion good by quotations. On the title-page Mr. Greenwood enumerates the classes to whom his "hand-book" is particularly addressed, and to these we add, all lovers of good literature, all who would fain forget for a while our natural depravity, and linger willingly on our less conspicuous inheritance of faithfulness, tenderness, naïveté, and even innocent absurdity.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bangs, J. K. The Water Ghost, and Others. Harpers. $1.25.
Crockett, S. R. Mad Sir Uchtred of the Hill. Macmillan. $1.25.
Dumas, A. The Conspirators. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Evetts, B. T. A. New Light on the Bible and the Holy Land. Cassell. $3.
Following the Star. Philadelphia: American Sunday School Union. 90 cents.
General Catalogue of Bowdoin College, including an Historical Sketch of the Institution during its First Century. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co. $1.
Hawthorne, Hildegarde. The Fairest of the Fair. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus. $1.25.
Hunt, E. Geometry for Grammar Schools. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Hunt, Violet. The Maiden's Progress: A Novel in Dialogue. Harpers. $1.
Janvier, T. A. In Old New York. Harpers. $1.75.
Jones, Sarah J. Godfrey Brenz. Philadelphia: American Sunday School Union. 80 cents.
Kendall, May. Songs from Dreamland. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Létang, Louis. Le Roi s'ennuie. Paris: Calmann Lévy.
McClelland, M. G. The Old Post-Road. Merriam Co.
McVickar, H. G. The Purple Light of Love. Appletons.
Munroe-Ferguson, V. Music Hath Charms. Harpers.
Oriental Studies: Papers Read before the Oriental Club of Philadelphia. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.
Platt, Sarah. Poems. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Pool, Miss Maria L. Out of Step. Harpers. $1.25.
Rollins, F. W. Break o' Day Tales. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. 75 cents.
Rowsell, Mary C. The Friend of the People. 3 vols. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Scovil, Elizabeth R. The Care of Children. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus.
Sharpe, R. R. London and the Kingdom. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
The *Overland Monthly*, January—June, 1894. San Francisco: *Overland Monthly* Publishing Co.
The Silver Christ. By Ouida. Macmillan. $1.25.
Tomlinson, E. T. The Search for Andrew Field. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Unwin, Prof. W. C. The Development and Transmission of Power from Central Stations. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Younghusband, Capt. G. J. On Short Leave to Japan. London: Sampson Low & Co.
Woolcombe, W. G. Practical Work in General Physics. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Warden, Florence. A Perfect Fool. International News Co. 50 cents.
Warren, Prof. W. H. Engineering Construction in Iron, Steel and Timber. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.

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